

**A Comparative Study of Teachers'
Continuing Professional Development (CPD)
In Nigeria and England: A Study of Primary
Schools in Abuja and Portsmouth.**

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DECLARATION

Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic work.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my sweet mother Mrs R. A. Ozigi, and my late father Prof. A.O. Ozigi (OON), who have made remarkable contributions towards education in Nigeria at different levels. You are my inspiration, and I am glad your investment has not been in vain.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ATC-	Advanced Teachers College
BIS -	Business Innovation and Skills
BTECH-	Business and Technology Education Council
CUREE-	Centre for the Use of Research and Evidence in Education
CMS-	Church Missionary Society
CPD-	Continuing Professional Development
DCSF -	Department for Children, Schools and Families
DfE -	Department for Education
DfEE -	Department for Education and Employment
DfES -	Department for Education and Science
DFID-	Department for International Development
EBITT -	Employment based Initial Teacher Training
EFA-	Education for All
EPPI -	Evidence for Policy and Practice Information and coordinating centre.
ESSPIN-	Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria
FME-	Federal Ministry of Education
FCT-	Federal Capital Territory
GCSE-	General Certificate in Secondary Education
GTC -	General Teaching Council of England
GTP-	Graduate Teacher Programme
HSC-	Higher School Certificate

ICT -	Information and communication technology
IDP -	International Development Partners
INSET-	In-Service Education and Training
ISC -	Independent Schools Council
ISI-	Independent Schools Inspectorate
JAMB-	Joint Admissions Matriculation Board
JSS-	Junior Secondary School
LEA-	Local Education Authority
LGEA-	Local Government Education Authority
LIFE-	Literacy Initiative for Empowerment
LMS -	Local Management of Schools
MDG-	Millennium Development Goals
MCPD--	Mandatory Continuing Professional Development
NAPPS -	National Association of Proprietors of Private Schools
NCE -	National Certificate in Education
NCNE-	National Commission for Nomadic Education
NCSL -	National College for School Leadership
NEEDS-	National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
NECO-	National Examinations Council
NERDC-	Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council
NPEC-	National Primary Education Commission
NPE -	National policy on Education
NPQH-	National Professional Qualification for Headship

NTI-	National Teachers Institute
NUC -	National Universities Commission
NVQ-	National Vocational Qualification
OECD-	Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development
OFSTED-	Office for Standards in Education
OTTP-	Overseas Teacher Training Programme
PGCE-	Postgraduate Certificate in Education
PGDE-	Postgraduate Diploma in Education
PTTP -	Pivotal Teacher Training Programme
QTS-	Qualified Teacher Status
SAT-	Standard Attainment Tests
SCITT-	School Centred Initial Teachers Training
SF-	Structural Functionalism
STUP-	Special Teacher Upgrading Programme
SPEB-	State Primary Education Board
SSCE-	Senior Secondary Certificate Examination
SSS-	Senior Secondary School
TDA-	Teachers Development Agency
TRCN-	Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria
TTISSA-	Teacher Training Initiatives in Sub-Sahara Africa
TQTT-	Teacher Quality Task Team
TVET-	Technical and Vocational Education Training
UBE-	Universal Basic Education
UPE-	Universal Primary Education

UPEB-	Universal Primary Education Board
UTME -	Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examinations
UNESCO-	United Nations Educational Social and Cultural Organisation
UNESS-	UNESCO National and Education Support Strategy
UNICEF -	United Nations Children's Fund

ABSTRACT

This thesis provides a comparative theoretical analysis and empirical description of teachers' Continuing Professional Development (CPD) in Abuja and Portsmouth. The theoretical sections comprise a comprehensive review of literature that examines teaching as a profession and key developments and the contribution of CPD towards teacher professionalization in both countries. The empirical aspect investigates and discusses the findings relating to teacher professional development, providing a comparative analysis of teacher profile and CPD in both countries. The aim of this research is to identify, compare and evaluate teachers' CPD in English and Nigerian primary schools, in order to explore any transferable best practices that can enhance the quality of teachers in an urban district of Abuja. It draws upon literature on comparative education research as an underpinning concept, and examines the peculiarities between the public and private primary schools foregrounding the unique context of urban Abuja. The study uses qualitative research design and a combination of mixed methods including interviews, questionnaires and a comprehensive review of literature and documents over the last two decades. Field work was carried out between September 2009 and June 2010, and the survey sample consisted of 205 teachers in Abuja, 48 in Portsmouth, and interviews with headteachers and CPD coordinators. Data analysis involved descriptive statistics and cross tabulations using PASW 18 which are presented in tables, figures and charts. Findings suggest that teaching conditions and opportunities for CPD in both countries may differ based on contextual factors; however, there is a common drive towards professionalism and teacher quality. Better opportunity for teacher professional development exists in private schools in Abuja, which is attributable to more autonomy, competitive market and high demand for quality education. The study highlights some transferable practices which include a planning and implementation model, and a SPARC framework for teachers' CPD which constitutes skills, professional training, attitude, and research and collaborative activities. It suggests implications for further research and recommendations for school leaders, researchers and policy makers.

KEYWORDS: Teacher Continuing Professional Development, Professionalism, Comparative Study, Private / Independent and State Schools, Abuja, Nigeria and Portsmouth, England.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

Education is a process whereby knowledge, skills, values and culture are transmitted in society. It is perceived as a key to most of life's opportunities and equips individuals for roles that will enable them to shape the society around them. It is considered as a great investment that any nation can make for development of its, economic, political, social and human resources (Uchendu, 1993). Given its relevance and value in the society, quality education has been a top priority in the government's agenda for the past two decades in England and Nigeria (FME, 2011; FME, 2009; DfEE, 2001; DfEE, 1997).

Quality education encompasses a wide range of attributes and expectations which may be embedded in social, political, cultural and economic contexts. It is important to note that, global and international influences reflect on the notion of quality education. From the schools' perspective, quality education comprises a conducive and safe learning environment, curriculum content, learning outcomes, pupil achievements, skills acquisition and availability of trained teachers who are able to impart knowledge and facilitate learning (UNICEF,2000). Quality education in this context refers to an enabling environment where teachers are supported and motivated to teach and facilitate learning, and pupils acquire sound knowledge, excellent academic achievement and develop good skills, values and morals. A major part of this takes place in a school environment with quality teachers.

Teacher quality has been recognised as one of the most important factors in determining quality education in schools as evidenced from successful education systems around the world (OECD, 2009; Barber and Moourshed, 2007). Teachers are considered as the most valuable asset in a school (Day, 1999), key agents involved in raising the standard of education, and perceived as the pivot upon which the education system hangs (Omorghie, 2006). Teacher quality impacts on the quality of education in any system as asserted in the axiom;

No education system can rise above the quality of its teachers (NPE 2004).

Effective training and professional development are essential in determining teacher quality, which is inextricably linked to the success and sustainability of any education system. Continuous growth of professional knowledge and skills is an essential part of improvement and development in any profession. Professional development of teachers has been placed under considerable pressure in many countries in recent years and there has been much emphasis on professionalization (Hardman et al, 2011; Wermke, 2011; Akyeampong et al, 2011; Wilkins, 2011; Bubb and Earley, 2007; Garuba, 2007). Day (1999) argues that a teaching qualification is no longer sufficient in providing teachers with knowledge and skills they require if there is no regular updating of these assets through professional development activities. Studies show that effective Continuing Professional Development (CPD) activities can help to enhance teacher quality (Day and Gu, 2010; Robinson and Sebba, 2005).

Over the last two decades the teaching profession in Nigeria has suffered a serious decline in quality and has been faced with daunting challenges, which range from insufficient funding, lack of resources and infrastructure, poor working conditions (especially in the public sector), falling standards in training institutions and poor quality of teachers (Akinbote, 2007; Omoreghie, 2006; Ogiegbaen, 2005; Ajelyemi, 2005). Due to the emphasis on education, there is huge demand on schools to provide quality education, which invariably hinges on teacher quality. This has led to a significant attention and strategic focus on teacher professional development as stated in recent education agenda (FME, 2011). A situation analysis of CPD in Nigeria established that there are no structured ongoing programs in schools to update teachers in either content, knowledge or curriculum improvements (Junaid, 2009). There is however an emerging recognition of relevance of CPD for teachers as stated in the National Policy on Education;

Teacher education shall continue to take cognizance of changes in methodology and in the curriculum. Teachers shall be regularly exposed to innovations in their profession (NPE 2004, p.40).

In England the same imperative exists and Governments have enacted policies that require teachers and head teachers have opportunities to update their subject knowledge and skills throughout their careers (Bubb and Earley, 2007; Fullan, 2007; Furlong, 2000; Bush, 1999; DfEE, 1997). Although education in England

may not be faced with the same types of challenges faced in Nigeria, there is the same emphasis on the role of teachers in improving the standard of education in schools.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

Many professions engage in various forms of professional development in order to maintain quality and remain relevant in the society and this applies to the teaching profession (Robinson and Sebba, 2005; Castle et al, 1998). Relevance has to do with being updated in knowledge and understanding of current developments that can meet society's needs, given modernisation and globalisation. In Nigerian schools teacher quality has been a fundamental issue for over two decades and there are no formal structures in place for ensuring teachers professional development (Junaid, 2009).

CPD in Nigerian primary schools is currently random, haphazard and accidental rather than planned, top-down or theoretical rather than practical (Ushie 2009, p.2).

A major challenge as asserted by Ushie (2009) is not just quantity but quality of teachers, as well as upgrading of their knowledge and skills. Different schools have various approaches towards teacher professional development which depends on the school leadership and management system in place. Adhoc in-service training is sometimes organised within schools or by external bodies, however the modus operandi and effectiveness of such programs are under explored, which raises concerns about teacher professional development (Garuba, 2007).

The research terrain in Abuja is fertile for exploring education however there has been little investigation into ways of addressing the problems- specifically that of teacher professional development. Abuja, being the capital of Nigeria, has experienced rapid growth in population and therefore an increase in the demand for schooling. The response has been a huge expansion of schools particularly private schools (Tsiga, 2006). In spite of this growth very little is known about how these schools are managed and whether they have strategies for teachers' professional development. Although some aspects of teacher education and professional development have been investigated in different states in Nigeria

(Udofia, 2007; Olobube, 2006; Usman, 2006; Ogiegbaen, 2005; Garuba, 2002) there is no evidence from extant literature, of any related studies undertaken regarding CPD in Abuja.

In England, there is extensive awareness of CPD in schools, given the government's policy and CPD strategies (DfEE, 2001b), which have been adopted in both state maintained and independent schools. In recent years, there has been considerable research and significant developments in raising the profile of CPD in England, (Gray, 2005; Goodall et al, 2001; Brown et al, 2001). Brown et al (2001) focus on the role of the Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in supporting schools to provide CPD and to identify innovative practices that might be adopted by schools and LEAs for further improvements. Goodall et al, (2005) in an extensive survey of schools in England investigate the impact and effectiveness of the various approaches to evaluating CPD while Gray (2005) examines CPD of teachers in secondary schools and further education colleges in England and reviews the current practice and identifies the gaps in provision.

The choice of England as the comparator for this research is based on several reasons including the historical colonial relationship between England and Nigeria, some parallels in educational developmental trends and antecedents and not least the similar functions of the educational systems and structures in both countries. It is also linked to the perception of British education having a more successful and established system of education. Westernised education and teaching practices in Nigerian schools are perceived to be better than the traditional teacher centred methods which are still predominant in many schools. However, schools in urban areas are beginning to adopt some practices from the western education systems to improve the standards and quality of teaching and learning. The colonial connection between England and Nigeria and the early influence on the establishment of education systems in the latter makes England the most convenient comparator.

The choice of Portsmouth as a comparator is based on convenience and the fact that the researcher has resided in that city for a long period and therefore has accessibility to schools in the area. Abuja was selected as the case study in Nigeria

as it is the home of the researcher and she has access to schools and teachers in the area. Both cases are also in urban areas. Furthermore the researcher has a specific interest in investigating the issue of teacher quality and professional development as there is a dearth of empirical research. Comparing teacher CPD in primary schools in Abuja and Portsmouth is a new area to be explored and will contribute to knowledge in the field although not claiming to be representative of schools in both countries.

The starting point is that schools in Nigeria have experienced a decline in the quality of teachers in the last decade and there are no effective formal structures for professional development of teachers to improve their quality. There is also a huge disparity between the two major types of schools (private and public) in terms of quality, management, learning resources, facilities, teacher competence and patronage. Public education in Abuja is perceived to be of very poor quality with poor teaching and learning conditions serving the majority of lower class citizens who cannot afford private education. Private schools, on the other hand, are patronised by the majority of parents in urban district and generally provide better quality education for different social classes in society. Although teachers in both types of schools undergo the same pre-service training, there is some evidence of disparity in terms of teacher quality and professional status between the private and public schools. Given that teacher competence has been a critical issue in most schools it is important to explore what structures are in place for ensuring teachers' professional development in both school types. This spurred my interest to examine and compare how different schools in the two contexts- public and private, seek to improve teachers' quality.

Prior to undertaking this research I worked as an administrator in a private school in Abuja but I had little knowledge of the public school system. My school was located within the urban district and catered for middle class parents in a highly competitive market situation. My role involved not only administrative duties but also ensuring that academic standards were raised and maintained including teacher recruitment and evaluation. There was therefore, a need for an effective and well-structured framework for developing and maintaining a reputation for quality teaching and staff with high professional status to ensure the success of the school. This also underpinned the motivation for this research.

It is perceived that teacher quality is a key factor in determining the quality of education and improving student's learning outcomes in any school. However, identifying competent and quality teachers and retaining them was a fundamental issue in Abuja, as the majority of applicants who applied for teaching positions were mostly unsatisfactory. Given the high demand for competent teachers especially in the private sector, in the urban district, the few 'good' ones, are quite expensive to recruit and difficult to retain. Many teachers, despite their qualifications and experience, are unsuitable for selection, which implies that a teaching qualification is not sufficient in determining teacher quality, hence the need for continuous professional development.

The focus of this study is to explore any transferable best practices found in the UK that could be adapted to schools in Abuja, and which could help to improve teacher quality, and imbibe an ethos of continuous learning. This study will raise more awareness and provide better understanding of CPD to establish a framework for teachers' professional development in schools in Abuja and could in turn influence the practice in similar contexts in Nigeria.

1.3 RESEARCH CONTEXT

A brief background of schooling in Abuja will illuminate the reader's understanding of the uniqueness and peculiarity of the research contexts. Nigeria is the most populous countries in Africa with a population of about 150,000,000. It comprises 36 states including the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), which is Abuja. The states are grouped into six geo political zones; North-Central, North-East, North-West, South-East, South-West and South-South each distinguished by its peculiar traditional, religious and cultural diversity. This diversity in Nigeria reflects on the education, political, social economic systems and characteristic features of each state.

Abuja which is located in the North-Central geopolitical zone, officially became the capital of Nigeria in 1991, and comprises the administrative, executive and legislative arms of government. With a population of approximately 780,000 people Abuja comprises urban, suburban and rural areas which are categorised into different phases (NPC 2006). Phase one, which is the main urban area of the city, is divided into five districts; Wuse , Garki , Asokoro , Maitama and Central

districts. Phases two and three comprise a total of nine suburban districts, and ten rural satellite settlements. A higher population reside in the suburban / rural areas of Abuja, while a lower percentage lives within the urban districts (See appendices 10 and 11). The study focuses on the urban area (Phase I) in Abuja which shows some resemblance with schools in Portsmouth with regards key characteristics as explained in selection criteria in chapter 5 (see figure 5.2).

The distribution of schools in various locations generally reflects the population pattern within the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) which comprises six area councils as shown in Appendix 10. There is a higher percentage of private schools in the urban area, given that the majority of population residents in these areas are of the upper class category. About 90% of schools in the urban area are private with some 10% state, whereas in the rural areas 44% are state and 56% private. The category of schools is influenced by a mix of factors including; location, cost of living, school fees, social stratification, level of affluence of parents, religious orientation, type of curriculum, school reputation and academic performance and quality of teachers. The distribution of schools in Abuja may not be representative of other states in the country, however a detailed description of the categorisation of schools in Abuja is provided in chapter two.

Private education in Abuja is largely a market driven venture, greatly influenced by the level of affluence and social stratification. This mirrors the situation in most of the ‘big cities’ or affluent areas in many states, hence, a huge expansion of private schools in Nigeria. The upsurge of private schools in Abuja has led to an increase in the demand for more competent teachers which has had a huge impact on staff turnover especially among the younger, experienced and qualified teachers. In order to improve their marketability some private schools tend to borrow ideas and various practices from developed countries, which are considered to have more successful school systems.

Relatively affluent schools located in urban districts in major cities in Nigeria, tend to give more attention to teacher professional development, due to the emphasis on teacher quality. This agrees with Thompson’s (2012) study a private school in Lagos. Private schools are expected to be more inclined to teacher development due to their autonomy, competitive markets and high expectation

from clientele towards quality education (Oni, 2011; Harma, 2011). Oduro (2003) asserts that in-service training and CPD in Ghana, is more popular in urban areas than in the rural or sub urban areas.

It is important to note that different states in Nigeria may have their own peculiarities in terms of school distribution and categorisation; nevertheless, social class and level of income of the families determine the type of private schools children attend. Schools in urban areas often have more infrastructure, better facilities and resources with a higher quality of education whereas schools in rural areas are usually rated very low in terms of quality of education and teaching standards. Also, some states in Northern Nigeria are regarded as being more 'educationally disadvantaged' than others due to several underlying factors such as; socio- cultural influences, religious beliefs, demographic pressure, inadequate funding, shortage of qualified and competent teachers (Igbuzor , 2007; Isyaku, 2006), whereas the South West and South Eastern zones in Nigeria tend to be more educationally advantaged.

The United Kingdom consists of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, with England being the largest country with an estimated population of 51,450,000 as at 2008. Each country has its devolved responsibility for education have different policies and system. England and Wales have similar systems but those of Scotland and Northern Ireland are different. However the study shall focus on England.

Portsmouth is the second largest city in the county of Hampshire, on the south coast of England, with a population of 207,100 people (EPSON 2007). It has the highest density of population in Europe, outside of London and is predominantly urban. It consists of five districts, the North West, North East, Central, South West and South East (Appendix 11 shows the distribution of schools in each district). Portsmouth is a much smaller city than Abuja in both area and population but its population is far less diverse than Abuja. Whilst state schools constitute 93 per cent of the population and are distributed throughout the districts all independent schools are located in southwest area, however their catchment area extends far beyond the city and has a 20 mile radius.

In England, independent schools largely serve a small minority affluent upper class and middle families (Walford, 2011; Watkins, 2000), unlike in Nigeria where a much larger number of private schools cater for a far wider range of social classes (Tooley et al, 2005). Based on contextual underlying factors, it is important to note that state and private schools in Nigeria are not a replica of schools in England. About 93 per cent of school age children attend state schools in England and only 7per cent attend independent schools. The implication is that the majority of the population, irrespective of social class rely on state provision, which is of good standard, well organised and resourced. Contrarily in Nigeria, private schools are the preferred choice for most social classes that can afford to pay, due to the poor standard of the public schools. Although there may be similarities in structure, organisation and management of schools and in the training and professional development of teachers, contextual and cultural issues cannot be ignored.

In terms of transferability of practices, it is important to bear in mind that that best practices identified may be desirable but not plausible or feasible due to unique contextual features discussed. A comprehensive review of relevant literature, particularly in the last decade, will provide the theoretical and contextual framework and address debates about definitions, drivers of change, and issues relevant to the subject of the research. A questionnaire distributed to teachers in samples of schools in the two case study areas will be supplemented by interviews with head teachers and CPD coordinators.

Although, Nigeria won its independence since 1960, much of the developments and advancement in key areas including education borrows ideas from the western world and developed countries. Tikly (2001), argued that colonialism still exists in many parts of the world, due to indirect forms of political and economic domination which is applicable in Nigeria.

Post colonialism is a global condition or shift in cultural, political, and economic arrangements that arise from the experiences of European colonialism both in former colonised and colonising countries (Tikly 1999, p.605).

Hickling-Hudson (2006), argued that researchers who explore postcolonial theories in comparative education are often scholars who have either been shaped by postcolonialism or have lived in a former colony and are beneficiaries of the gains of the empire. This research stems from having lived, studied and worked in Nigeria and then studying in England and gaining some experience and understanding of the English education system. This allows one to look at the two systems in perspective, identify key issues and how they are being responded to, and identify any similarities or differences and transferable practices. Given that transfer of knowledge has received much attention in recent years, (Philips and Ochs, 2004; Philips, 2000; Rose,1993) an understanding of teacher professional development can be explored in this context for possible transfer and implementation of best practices where plausible.

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The overarching aim and purpose of this study is to identify, compare and critically evaluate the practices of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) in English and Nigerian primary schools, in order to learn from how the quality of the professional development of primary school teachers in an urban district of Abuja, could be improved. The study is encapsulated in the following research objectives;

1. To identify, compare, and contrast CPD practices in state and private / independent primary schools in Abuja and Portsmouth.
2. To examine the motivation and investigate the constraints and impediments to participation in CPD of primary school teachers each location.
3. To identify and explore transferable practices that may enhance the quality of teachers' professional development in primary schools in Abuja.
4. To compare and contrast the profiles and characteristics of teachers in both countries.
5. To draw out implications for practice and policy in Nigeria which can lead to the implementation of a more effective and practical CPD model which can be adopted in schools.

The following questions will help to address the research objectives:

1. How do schools in Abuja and Portsmouth ensure CPD of teachers?
2. Is there any policy that guides teachers CPD in Nigeria and England, and how effectively is it being implemented?
3. What types of CPD activities do teachers engage in?
4. What do teachers and school leaders perceive as effective CPD and how is it evaluated?
5. How can teachers be motivated to participate and be involved in CPD?
6. What are the limitations to participation in CPD and how can they be addressed?
7. Are there any lessons or best practices that can be transferred in order to enhance teachers' professional development in Abuja?
8. Are there any similarities or differences in comparing the demographic profiles of teachers in the two countries, specifically looking at their age, gender, teaching qualifications, and years of teaching experience, length of service in current school and reasons for choosing teaching as a career?

A comprehensive review of relevant literature, particularly in the last decade, will provide the theoretical and contextual framework and address debates about definitions, driver of change, and issues relevant to the subject of the research. A survey of teachers will be undertaken, in the two case studies which will be supplemented by interviews involving head teachers and CPD coordinators. It is important to note that the research was conducted between 2008 and 2010 after which there have been changes and reforms in teacher education and professional development in England while developments have also occurred in Nigeria as the literature reports.

1.5 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

This thesis comprises eight chapters summarised as follows;

Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the thesis. It begins with a background of the study, explains the rationale and research aim and objectives. It looks at other perspectives of comparative research in education and describes the research contexts foregrounding the peculiarity of the educational terrain in Abuja. It gives a brief narrative account of the researcher's experience in undertaking this study.

Chapter 2 discusses the theoretical framework and historical background. The research is grounded in structural functionalist theory, which places the research in perspective and allows one to examine the education and training systems and interrelated structures which perform similar functions. It also draws upon literature on comparative international research in education which explains the comparative approach adopted pointing out the relevance and limitations. It describes the emergence of education systems and structure of schools in Nigeria and England, highlights key developments in education showing a parallel in the antecedence in both countries.

Chapter 3 examines the concepts of professionalism, professions as it relates to teaching which will enlighten for a better understanding of the relevance of CPD. It considers the status of teachers as professionals and examines key issues with the teaching profession in both countries.

Chapter 4 focuses on teacher training and CPD, providing a background of its emergence and current status in both contexts. It explains the meaning of CPD and describes different types of CPD activities and their relevance in teaching. It also explores evaluation effectiveness of CPD, and identifies what motivates and also what are the barriers to participation.

Chapter 5 describes the methodology and research design and outlines the framework adopted for investigating the study and data analysis.

Chapter 6 focuses on the presentation of data from the interviews and questionnaire.

Chapter 7 discusses the major findings and demonstrates how these have addressed the research objectives. It draws out some transferable practices linking the empirical findings with the literature.

Chapter 8 provides an overview of the study, highlighting the major findings and suggests recommendations for stakeholders, policy makers and researchers. It suggests a model for CPD planning and implementation in which teachers CPD focuses on SPARC which represents; Skills required by teachers, Professional training and knowledge, Attitudes, Research, and Collaboration.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces two sociological theories that explain the underpinning assumptions of the role of education in society. Whilst making a case for considering structural functionalism as a basis for comparison, it highlights the limitations and criticisms by conflict theorists. The chapter also draws from literature on comparative education, which demonstrates how cross national comparisons have served as a means of gaining better understanding of different societies, their structures and institutions. As systems are context specific, the chapter provides an overview of the historical background of the education systems and teacher training in both Nigeria and England. It shows the historical colonial relationship between the two countries and highlights key developments and reforms in education over the past few decades. It compares the school structure and types of school in both countries and specifically emphasises the peculiar categorisation of schools in Abuja which is typical of developing countries. The chapter concludes by explaining key underpinning factors considered in the study, which facilitate comparability between the two countries.

2.2 STRUCTURAL FUNCTIONALISM IN EDUCATION

Structural-functionalism (often paraphrased Functionalism) is an old sociological and anthropological theory which interprets society as a structure with interrelated parts. Structural-functionalists believe that in order for society to remain a viable system all component parts must function together and thus require a system to instil similar beliefs and values to each member of that society (Colhoun et al, 2012; Giddens, 2001). The concept of functionalism stresses the interdependence of institutions of a society and their interaction in maintaining cultural and social unity. It focuses on what enables the society to function, part of which includes education. Functionalism addresses the society as a whole in terms of the function of its constituent element namely norms, customs, traditions, and institutions (Meighan and Blatchford, 2003).

Functionalists assert that the subsections of society must function interdependently to maintain equilibrium otherwise it will fall apart. The education system is likened to the human body, where there are various parts, each with its specific function, but working together as a whole to keep the body healthy (Colhoun et al, 2012; Bessant and Watts, 2002). The essence of functionalism is the system- maintaining activity, where society is perceived as systems whose survival depends on performing the essential functions. According to Parsons (1964), society is naturally in a state of equilibrium or balance however, as change occurs in one part of the society, adjustments will be necessary in the other parts.

In describing the theory of structural-functionalism, three key words emerge; system, structure and function (Durkheim, 1968). A system is conceptualised as the totality of organisations which emerge to satisfy the needs of the society. The education system refers to the structure, behaviour and functionality of the entity through which children acquire knowledge, values and skills. A system is viewed as a functioning structure or superstructure of any society; $\text{System} = \text{Structure} + \text{Function}$ (Giddens, 2001).

Ritzer (2007) describes structures as patterned social interactions or relationships. Any institution with a structure, functions to provide a link with other constituent elements and more importantly ensures that the principles of the value system are realised in everyday life (Durkheim, 1968). Schools can be perceived of as social systems with structures which function to provide the context within which knowledge can be transferred and skills can be learnt in order to serve the needs of the society. Functional analysis considers social systems as having certain needs which are met by the social structures in the society, which include economic, legal, educational and political structures. Each of these structures performs specific functions without which the society cannot operate or survive. The functionalist claims that interconnections exist within these structures, and proper operation of these parts necessitates the smooth operation of society (Colhoun et al, 2012).

Function refers to the positive contribution to the operation of the system as a whole (Ritzer, 2007). In each society, there are a number of activities that must

be carried out for social life to survive and develop for example provision of goods and services. In the structural functional model, individuals carry out different tasks in various institutions and roles that are consistent with the structures and norms of the society. Parsons (1964) argues that so far as each individual carries out their functions and roles within these structures then the structures work.

Structural-functionalists claim that the aim of education is socialisation, transmission of knowledge, culture and social norms, thereby contributing to the smooth functioning and maintenance of the society. Education focuses on both the maintenance of the social system and it is seen as a fundamentally optimistic human endeavour characterised by aspirations for progress and betterment to prepare individuals for role allocation in the society (Haralambos and Holborn, 2008). For some it is seen as a means of social mobility by overcoming handicaps, achieving greater equality, acquiring wealth, and social status (Scholfield, 1999).

Functionalists perceive education as a means of sorting or separating students on the basis of merit (meritocracy) which schools tend to operate upon in today's society (Morrow and Torres, 1995). This is as a result of society's need and expectation for most capable people to get channelled into the most important jobs / occupations. This has been challenged by those who argue that other factors influence job allocation and the most capable do not necessarily get the best jobs (Stephens et al, 1998). According to Hurn (1995), an individual's acquisition of skills morals and values provides benefits to the society in which he lives hence makes society function better economically. In the school system teachers are responsible for transmitting these skills, morals and values to children, who then have a sense of belonging to the larger society. It can be argued that the school does not operate in isolation and its function is imperative to the development of the society. The functionalists approach to education highlights how the social mechanism already operating in schools can be modified in order to maintain equilibrium in the society (Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Durkheim, 1969).

According to Parsons (1964), there is a relationship between the structure of the school system and its functions in socialisation and in the granting of social roles in the society. Different schools assign individuals to roles and activities to enable

society to develop. Given therefore that education is a means by which society perpetuates itself, the moral organisation of the school needs to reflect that of the civil society (Stephens et al 1998). In the context of this study, performing the functions of education in any system requires competent and qualified teachers who are constantly updating on the developments and changes in society. CPD can therefore be viewed as a means of equipping teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge which will enable them to perform effectively their role in schools.

Durkheim (1968) emphasises the positive contribution of education to the smooth functioning of society by integrating young people into their roles as loyal citizens and competent workers. Durkheim claims that the specific characteristic of educational structures and their cultural contexts have strong functional relationships with the needs of society and focuses on ways in which education serves the society. Schools are social institutions which are meant to teach morals to children and help to maintain the moral order set up by the society (Stephens et al, 1998).

Structures consist of institutions which perform functions. Each level has its unique structure reflecting the social, economic and cultural contexts of each country. Within each level there are structures which function together to enable the whole system to work. In a primary school, for example, there are academic and administrative structures with separate functions, but both are interrelated in determining the functioning of the entire school system. Pre-primary education is linked to the primary level which is a prerequisite for secondary education which in turn leads on to the tertiary level. Hence, the various levels work together as a whole to keep the system functioning well which is a common phenomenon in both case study countries. Relating this to the functionalist's perspective, these values are key in realising the functions of education to enable the society to operate effectively.

Structural functionalism theory is helpful in this study and provides a basis for the comparison. Both countries have systems which have interrelated structures performing similar functions contributing towards maintaining social equilibrium

in the society. It allows one to compare the systems and structures, which perform similar roles in society but in different contexts.

The functionalist theory sees education as an essential social function and views schools as unified purposeful organisations also made up of component parts. Teachers are an integral core part of the school system. Teachers are key agents of transmission of knowledge and promoters of learning for individuals within the school system. To meet the constantly changing needs for education within society there is acceptance that continual professional development is necessary to keep abreast of changes and developments and to remain professionally relevant. There are structures designed for training teachers and to provide professional development activities in order to improve the quality and competencies of teachers. Such structures are evident in both case study countries although there are differences due to contextual and socio-economic factors.

The underpinning functionalists' assumptions in this research are that the education system is responsible for socialisation, transmission of knowledge and skills and that teachers are the key agents responsible for knowledge transfer, skill acquisition and for promoting learning. Thus society reproduces and maintains itself. As social needs change the educational system will respond by ensuring that those needs are met by socialising people into new values or training people with new skills giving access to new occupations which have a higher status than those still employing traditional skills. In this way functionalist theory can accommodate continuity and change as well as social mobility. This view, however, is challenged by the conflict theorists who perceive education to be rather than an agent of social mobility a filter which essentially reproduces the same class structure. Given the current trends in society the issue of social stratification and equal educational opportunities is on the political agenda and also of concern to parents. Access to quality education does appear to be largely dependent on social background and level of affluence, particularly in Abuja. The role of education as an agent of social mobility is therefore undermined and translates into social reproduction of inequality in society, thereby giving credence to the conflict theorists.

2.2.1 Conflict Theory And Its Criticisms

Conflict theory is a sociological theory which has its origins in Marxist theory which sees the purposes of education as maintaining social inequality and a class system and preserving the power of those individuals and groups who own the means of production and thus dominate society- namely the 'ruling' class. Education is considered as a powerful means of maintaining the existing power structures in society and perpetuating the status quo (Stephens et al, 1998). According to conflict theory, the main function of education is indoctrination of the working class, equipping them with basic knowledge and skills but ensuring their acceptance of the authority of the ruling class and serving their economic interests. Contrary to the structural functional approach, conflict theorists claim that society is full of vying social classes with different aspirations, different access to life chances and gaining different social rewards (Ritzer, 2007; Furze and Healy, 1997). Sargent (1994) argues that relations in society are mainly based on exploitation, oppression, domination and subordination. The intellectual basis for this argument is the evidence that the middle and upper class children require little effort to maintain their superior position while the working class have relatively limited chances to secure such positions.

Conflict theorists recognise that education prepares individuals for different job opportunities; however, they argue that employers use education as a filter for middle and upper class entrants for the top jobs and high positions while the working class entrants are considered for the lower ranks (Stephens et al, 1998). This division, which they claim is a consequence of education, is perceived to be responsible for social reproduction of inequality in the society. It is assumed that rich children will perform better and achieve greater rewards compared to the working class; hence there is a continuation of privilege of better education for the elite (Meighan and Blatchford, 1997). This is contrary to functionalists' perspective of meritocracy based on the fact that everyone, irrespective of socioeconomic factors, will have the opportunity to achieve good outcome and access to job opportunities in society. Ritzer (2007), however, argues that the issue of stratification simply perpetuates the privileged position of people who have power, prestige and affluence. This idea of sorting or ranking and how the education system enacts the sorting has been a limitation of functionalism. This

can also explain the gap between the quality of education in state and private/independent school systems not only in England and Nigeria but more generally.

Functionalists have been criticised for not explaining change and why a function of an element in the society might change or how the change occurs. Given the dynamic nature of society, change is inevitable in any area of development, therefore explaining change and how it occurs and is implemented is important. To the conflict theorists, every society is subject to the process of change at every point which appears contrary to functionalists' view of society as stable or always moving toward equilibrium. However, as stated above functionalists are essentially incrementalists stressing continuity, accommodation and adaptation rather than disintegration and revolution.

Functionalists are positive regarding the common social goals and functions of education, they fail, it is argued, to recognise that it is hard to achieve common social goals (Giddens, 2001). They are also criticised for their inability to see education as a means to motivating individuals towards their own personal development rather than a means to satisfy national economic needs (Bohm, 2001). Functionalists are also said to ignore inequalities including race, gender, class which are responsible for tensions and conflicts in society. Feminists disagree with functionalism pointing to the fact that gender inequality and discrimination are reflected in job segregation (England 1993; Collins, 1990). Where functionalists lay emphasis on orderliness, conflict theorists see dissension and conflict at every point in the social system. They recognise that society consists of both conflict and consensus; but they place little emphasis on values, norms and culture, which functionalists regard as key in maintaining order in the society (Ritzer, 2007).

Although the theory of functionalism has limitations, it remains useful and its assumptions still guide much sociological research. It serves as a suitable theory for this study, based on its emphasis on transmitting values, knowledge and skills to individuals through education, towards meeting society's needs. This study is about teachers' professional development towards the provision of quality education to meet the needs of society as explained in chapter one.

2.3 COMPARATIVE EDUCATION RESEARCH

Social science research can be very eclectic, drawing from a range of disciplines including sociology, psychology, political science and economics. This study also draws from comparative research traditions including comparative international education and comparative public policy. It draws upon literature on comparative international education which has gained much popularity in the recent years (Crossley and Tikly, 2004; Phillips, 2000; Crossley, 1999). It is applicable in this study based on the cross cultural nature of comparison which is between a developed and developing society. Cross national comparisons have served increasingly as a means of gaining better understanding of different societies, their structures and institutions (Broadfoot, 1999). Comparative education is a discipline in the social sciences which aims at making comparisons across different countries or cultures to identify analyse and explain similarities and differences (Philips, 2000). It is simply the act of comparing two or more things with a view to discovering something about one or all of the things being compared. Hence by comparing, one can gain understanding of what is done and why, from different points of view or situations.

Comparative research in education seeks to study two or more national systems of education so that differing approaches to similar problems may be described and evaluated (Collins et al, 1973, p.44). The countries or systems being compared may not be similar; however, there is often a basis for comparability. Comparative research however, provides case studies of the internal dynamics of education systems and how these influence the idiosyncratic effects of educational practices in any particular context (Broadfoot, 1999).

The strength of comparative education, when looking at developing countries, is that it has always sought to show how colonial education has been perceived in different ways rather than being homogenous (Crossley and Tikly, 2004). Hickling-Hudson's (2006) suggests that comparative education research can help to explore, recognise and disrupt entrenched preconceptions that may be limiting possibilities for changing in the directions that would create more equitable societies in a globalising world. Developing societies that are constantly seeking ways to improve and develop their education systems will benefit by comparing with other countries.

2.3.1 Reasons for Comparative Research in Education

Comparative research in education is undertaken for several reasons. Learning from the experience of others is a fundamental reason for comparative research in education. Improving knowledge about one's own educational system and promoting international goodwill are all pertinent to comparative research (Jackson, 1984). According to Phillips (1999), comparative study in education allows one to see various practices and procedures in a wider context that helps to throw light on them, examining alternatives to the normal practice. May (2001), asserts that comparing findings from different countries gives one an opportunity to see the basis of practices and issues. It helps to foster mutual understanding while exploring cultural differences and similarities between countries, offering explanations for them (Philips 2001).

Heidenheimer et al (1990), argue that assessing one situation against another gives a better perspective on our current situation as well as the options and constraints, thereby learning better approaches to different situations. Comparative research therefore facilitates and supports practical educational reforms by examining experience elsewhere observing planned development of school systems reveals current practice and offers yardstick by which educational systems can be judged (Holmes et al, 2006; Phillips, 1999; Jackson, 1984). A comparative approach enables researchers to ask questions that challenge their own cultural traditions and also stimulate them to look beyond surface appearances and explore diversity (Broadfoot, 1999).

2.3.2 Comparative Public Policy and Lesson Drawing

This study also borrows from the works of Rose (2005) and Philips and Ochs (2004), in comparative public policy. Comparative education and policy studies draws on comparative research traditions hence can be viewed as interdisciplinary in orientation, therefore attract comparativists from political, sociological and educational backgrounds. Although the theory of policy transfer focuses on policies and political development in countries, comparative education however examines developments and research in education. Steiner-Khamsi (2012), argues that while comparative education is transnational, focusing on national global developments, comparative policy is trans-sectoral focusing on understanding

local policy contexts. Interaction between the two fields is mutually beneficial and helps to compensate for some conceptual shortcoming of research traditions.

A common objective of both concepts is drawing lessons that will enhance and encourage development in countries. Lesson-drawing can be conceptualised as a form of policy transfer, and has become increasingly common in many countries over the last two decades (Phillips and Ochs 2004, James and Lodge, 2003; Stone, 1999; Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996; Rose, 1993). It combines knowledge about what is happening in one country and another, with focus on actions that may be taken for future implementation within or between nations. In other words it focuses on what might be learnt from the practice elsewhere.

Transferability is a distinguishing feature of lesson drawing which is an objective of this study. Due to influence of globalisation through industrialisation and advances in communication and information technology, transfer has become more apparent in the recent years. A key reason for drawing lessons is for the purpose of transfer and implementation where appropriate. It is important to note that several factors may possibly influence any form of transfer from one country to another. Rose (1993), claims that bureaucratic size, efficiency and complexity of the program could affect transferability given that less complicated programmes with single goals and simple bureaucratic structure are easier to transfer. Hence, the modus operandi and organisational structure in both systems are vital in transferability.

Drawing lessons from comparing is influenced by various perceptions. Phillips (2000), argues that notions of borrowing in education can result from, scientific or academic investigation of the situation in a foreign environment; popular conceptions of the superiority of other approaches; politically motivated endeavours to seek reform of provision; distortion of evidence from abroad to highlight perceived deficiencies at home. Evidence from international research and well established reports on education in different countries for instance, the Global Monitoring Report on EFA (Education for All) and TALIS (Teaching and Learning International Survey) report (OECD, 2009; Abani, 2003). These academic or scientific investigations are often provided by international development partners. Such findings highlight issues and developments in

education in developing countries, which encourage policy makers to explore borrowing of policies from abroad. Various forms of literature including the media tend to influence popular conceptions of superiority of other advanced education systems; an example is McKinsey's report which shows the top ten countries with the best education systems in the world (Barber and Moorshed, 2007). Some other notions arise from politically motivated endeavours through reference to other countries which may not be ignored where there is empirical evidence or documents to substantiate the claim.

2.3.3 Issues with Comparative Research

Several issues arise from comparative research in education which are distinctive especially problems stemming from complexities. Comparative researchers have to deal with the complexities of potentials and limitations of borrowing, lending and transfer of policies in comparative international education (Alexander, 2001). Major contextual issues are pointed out by comparative researchers, in transferring educational policies and practice from one socio-cultural context to another. As stated by an early comparativist in the early 20th century;

We cannot wander at pleasure among the educational systems of the world, like a child strolling through a garden, and pick off a flower from one bush and some leaves from another, and then expect that if we stick what we have gathered into the soil at home we shall have a living plant (Sadler in Crossley and Watson 2003, p.6).

Sadler's statement indicates that borrowing ideas from one system to another requires more than mere transfer or copying, however cultural complexities must be taken into consideration. Crossley and Tikly, (2004) assert that sensitivity to culture and context is fundamental issue in cross cultural comparisons. While borrowing ideas from different countries, it is important to note that not every brilliant idea that works in one country will suffice in another. As Rose (1993) emphasises, borrowing, importing or exporting of programs or ideas is only valid if systematic care is taken in analysing under what circumstances and to what extent a program effective in one place could be effective in another.

It has been recognised that the multidisciplinary nature of the comparative and international education generates significant problems in terms of organisation and management of information from different contexts (Crossley and Watson,

2003). The ability to understand adequately cultures and societies which are different, and also to generalise and explain social relations across societies and social contexts are fundamental in comparative research. In order to understand a culture or society, it is important to have a knowledge guiding principles which are employed in that specific context.

Cultural bias, assumptions, orientation, and mode of thoughts are bound to occur given that the two countries are at different stages of development. In assertion, Crossley and Watson (2003,p.36) state that;

We are all conditioned by our upbringing, culture, educational environment, our status in society, our perceptions, how others view us, as well as our political, social and religious values and attitudes.

It is argued that the influence of globalisation and modernisation, in postcolonised countries tend to adopt or borrow from western cultures which sometimes may be a challenge with regards to implementation and sustainability. It demands that priority is given to continuing implications of Europe's expansion into Africa. While Louisy (2001) makes particular reference to the cultural implications of globalisation in postcolonial countries, Hickling-Hudson (2006) argues that Western thoughts and practice ignores global hybridity and contradicts with intercultural ideas which reflect diversity, complexity and sophistication of cultures. Crossley and Watson (2003) suggest that, to understand a different educational system form one's own may require time spent in a country or numerous visits to enable a good understanding of the *modus operandi*, the strengths and weaknesses.

A key problem in comparative study is the difficulty of finding truly comparable measurements of data and information in different countries. Heidenheimer et al (1990), argue that finding appropriate indicators to serve as usable representations of the more general policy concept under study could be a problem. Another challenge in comparative education research is how to bridge the gap between educational research and its potential to improve policy and practice (Chisholm 2012; Barrett, 2007; Crossley 1999). A comparative study on learner centred education in Botswana and South Africa highlighted the gap between policy and

practice and shows how practice has not conformed to policy intent (Chisolm 2012). This is also reflected in Barrett's (2007), study of Tanzanian teachers which indicates how teachers in low income countries enact performative teacher centred rather than competency based learner centred pedagogies.

Peculiar issues with comparative education in developing countries include language barrier, funding issues, limited level of public research, limited funding, language and communication barrier, the changing nature of research problems and priorities, availability and accessibility to current data and poorly developed infrastructure and information system (Garuba, 2007; Tooley and Dixon, 2006; Crossley and Watson, 2003). The next section examines the historical background of both countries to provide a better understanding of the contexts.

2.4 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

2.4.1 Nigerian Education and Developments

A knowledge and understanding of context is vital in comparative research (Rose, 2005). A brief overview of the historical context will enable the reader to understand how the education systems in England and Nigeria emerged thus highlighting the historical antecedence of the current situation. The history of education in Nigeria is described using a framework of the strategic phases in the history of Nigeria traced from the pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial / independence eras. Phillips (2000) argues that the historical background is key to attracting the interest of education researchers and policy makers, which are reflected in this study.

i) Pre-colonial Era

Before the advent of colonialism in the nineteenth century, education in Nigeria was indigenous or traditional as conceptualised in the African society. Traditional African education emphasised social responsibility, job orientation, spiritual and moral values and apprenticeship training (Uchendu, 1993). Indigenous education was more common in the rural areas where children learnt skills from participating in daily activities and engaging in ceremonies, imitation, recitation

and practical demonstration. Children were involved in weaving, cooking, carving, fishing, hunting, building trades and local crafts. The emphasis during this period was learning by doing, respect for elders, and community participation in social activities. The form of education involved social, moral, intellectual, and job orientation (Uchendu, 1993; Fafunwa, 1974). Indigenous education was greatly influenced by the religious teachings of Islam and Christianity. Islamic education was seen as part of a religious duty, and children from age four attended quranic schools where they were taught how to read the Quran by Islamic scholars known as *Mallams*. Such schools were originally located in a religious teacher's house, under a tree, on a thoroughfare or in a mosque (Bello, 1981). Christianity was introduced by the missionaries who used the school system as a strategy for evangelism.

ii) Colonial (Pre-independence) Period

Nigeria was under the colonial rule of the British, from the second half of the nineteenth century until the middle of the twentieth century when Nigeria became independent. Western education was introduced in 1842, through European missionaries who pioneered formalised education by using the school system as their main tool for Christian evangelism (Uchendu, 1993; Adeyinka, 1973). The church mission schools and the catholic missionaries established elementary schools and designed the curriculum which was originally based on the bible including reading, writing and arithmetic (Fafunwa, 1974). The missionaries were mostly responsible for managing the schools as the colonial government did not show much interest in education of the citizens until early twentieth century (Uchendu, 1993). Coleman (1963) argues that the lack of interest in the welfare and education of the citizens amounted to a form of exploitation to keep them in perpetual servitude to the colonial masters.

Elementary education went through different stages of development during the colonial era; for instance, a child only qualified for elementary school when he was able to use one hand over the head to reach the ear on the opposite side (Akinyemi 1982, p.64). In the late 1950s, the entry age adopted into elementary or primary school was six. The system of education in operation during this period

was referred to as 8-6-2-3 which meant that students spent eight years in elementary school, six years in secondary school, two years in Higher School Certificate (HSC) and three years in University. After successful completion of elementary education, students proceeded to post primary or secondary schools where they were taught English grammar, commercial and technical education, and other subjects, each having its own curriculum. Post-secondary or higher education was the next stage, where students specialised in different courses or professions. By 1950 the country had developed a three-tiered system of primary, secondary and higher education, based on the British model (Fafunwa, 1991).

iii) Post-colonial / Independence Period

Nigeria achieved independence from British colonial rule in 1960 since when a myriad of changes in the educational system have taken place (Adeyinka, 1988). Before the independence, in 1954, the British colonial rulers changed the educational system from 8-6-2-3 to a 6-5-2-3 system which meant six years of primary, five years of secondary, two years of higher school certificate and three years of tertiary education. After the independence, the Federal Government embarked on an overhaul of the education system, and in 1969, the current National Policy on Education (NPE) was established (Adeyinka, 1973; Adaralegbe, 1972). One of the recommendations was, a 6-3-3-4 system adapted from the American system, thereby marking a departure from the British system. This comprised of six years of primary, three years of junior secondary, three years of senior secondary and four years of tertiary education depending on the course. The 6-3-3-4 system aimed at providing opportunities for Nigerian adolescents and adults to be self-employed after their formal education to junior secondary level. The intention was for students who were unable to proceed to the senior secondary level, to go on to an apprenticeship system or vocational training, like carpentry, vulcanising, sewing and catering, which would enable them to become self-employed (Uchendu, 1993).

The implementation of the 6-3-3-4 system did not begin until 1983 all over the country. It stabilized in 1984, when the military returned to power, with the hope that it would be as successful as Japan which had also adopted the American

system (Gusau, 2008). Several years after its commencement, it was realised that the system was not achieving its objective in the sense that many of the students who could have transited from junior secondary to technical colleges to acquire vocational training were unable to do so because of lack of provision of adequate facilities. There was a high level of youth unemployment in the country, which was contrary to the purpose of the system (Adeyinka, 2009). The failure of the 6-3-3-4 system was attributed to poor planning, lack of funds, and lack of infrastructure, unskilled teachers or trainers to coordinate the technical aspect (Adeyinka, 2009; Gusau, 2008; Abdulhakeem, 1992).

Another significant development after the independence was the introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE), designed to ensure free education and reduce the educational imbalance between the North and other parts of the country. The imbalance is due to the fact that the southern, western and eastern regions embraced the missionaries much more than the northern part of Nigeria, focused more on Islamic education (Uchendu, 1993). The UPE scheme was launched in September 1976 and marked a significant turning point in development of education in Nigeria (Garuba, 2004). With the launching of primary schools came under the federal government and the Ministry of Education became responsible for all schools. Two decades later, however, only limited success had been achieved, and the scheme was faulted in scope, planning, funding and lack of accurate data of children (Edho, 2009; Ajayi, 2007, Csapo, 1981). This led to the introduction of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) in 1999.

2.4.2 Key Developments in Nigerian Education in the last two decades

The last decade in Nigeria, has been marked by several significant policy thrusts and programs that seek to actualise the EFA (Education for All) and achieve sustainable national development. As one of the E9 countries with the highest illiteracy rate in sub-Saharan Africa, the most significant step towards comprehensive reform was the passing into law of the compulsory free Universal Basic Education (UBE Act, 2004) which is one of the strategies aimed at implementing the educational component of the Millennium Development Goal

(MDG)¹ of the United Nations. This was an evidence of Nigeria's commitment to transform the basic education sub-sector, to provide basic education for all Nigerian children and to lay a solid foundation for lifelong learning by providing free and compulsory basic education for nine years (six years primary and three years junior secondary education).

The UBE policy encompasses formal basic education, nomadic education and non-formal or adult education (Ajayi, 2007). Formal education covers nine years of compulsory and free fulltime schooling; non-formal component of the UBE covers all special programs designed for acquisition of functional literacy, numeracy and life skills for adults aged 15 and above, non-formal training for updating of knowledge and skills and apprenticeship education for adolescents and youth; nomadic education refers to education for nomads, which includes cattle herders, fishermen and farmers.

Critics have argued that UBE schemes are a replica of previous failed systems and faced challenges which include; poor planning, insufficient funding, lack of qualified teachers, incoherent implementation of the curriculum, ineffective supervision and monitoring and lack of essential facilities and infrastructure (Edho, 2009; Umar and Tahir, 2009; Adeyinka, 2009; Ubong, 2007). While Adegite (2006.p,4), claims that the UBE scheme was meant to be a soothing relief for the nation's ailing educational system, but Ubong (2007), argues that education is not achieving the objectives of the scheme. Many schools are still plagued with inadequate physical facilities for effective implementation of the UBE, despite annual budgets for funding the UBE programme including significant aids from local and international communities (ESSPIN, 2008; Ubong, 2007; Garuba, 2004).

International development partners including DFID, UNICEF, UNESCO, USAID and ESSPIN (Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria) work alongside the Nigerian government to promote EFA and improve the quality of education. Although several projects have been undertaken by these organisations, to enhance basic education and teacher development (Copinger, et al 2010; Sergid,

¹ The MDGs are eight international development goals that all 192 member states of the United Nation (UN), have agreed to achieve by 2015, one of which is to achieve universal primary education in these countries .

2010) there are still a high proportion of school age children out of school, with unqualified and incompetent teachers in schools.

A significant development in the primary education in Nigeria is the issue of Inclusive education which reflects in gender imbalance, special education needs and early childhood education provision. This has been a major issue especially in Northern Nigeria where religious and cultural beliefs impinge on education (Abdulhakeem, 1992). Several National Frameworks that seek to promote inclusive education and the fundamental right of Nigerians to quality and basic education include; National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) and the United Nations Decade of Sustainable Development (DESD) (FME 2008). Innovative policies to address the challenge of inclusive education were also introduced which include; National Policy on HIV and AIDS for the education sector, National Policy on Gender in Basic Education (2007), Guidelines for Identification of gifted children (2006) and Implementation plan for Special Needs Education Strategy (2007).

Another landmark reform introduced was the UNESCO National Education Support Strategy (UNESS). This is a very significant aspect of a holistic approach to education reform in Nigeria, targeted at securing cooperation on basic education, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and education in science and technology. To strengthen the 10 year (2006 – 2015) strategic plan and possible prospects of meeting EFA goals, three reform initiatives were introduced; the first was Teacher Training Initiative for Sub Saharan Africa (TTISSA), an initiative aimed at improving the quality and increasing the quantity of teacher in sub-Saharan Africa. Given that acute shortage of qualified teachers has been identified as one of the biggest challenges to the realisation of the EFA goals, training and professional development of teachers is fundamental to achieving the target (UNESCO 2007). Another was Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE) reinforces national and international commitments to literacy support the articulation of sustainable literacy policies, strengthen national capacities and enhance countries initiatives in providing literacy learning opportunities while EDUCAIDS is the global initiative which seeks to develop and support comprehensive education sector responses to HIV and AIDS (UNESCO, 2006).

A recent document by the Federal Ministry of Education (FME 2010) provides initiatives that will facilitate the development of the education sector. Four areas of priority include; Access and equity; Standards and quality assurance; Technical and Vocational Education and Training; and Funding and Resource utilisation. The standards and quality assurance thrust emphasises on teacher professionalism and CPD as essential prerequisites towards quality assurance in education. Several strategies have been suggested to enhance the standards and quality of education, these include; establishment of a National Commission for Quality Assurance, Teacher Professionalism and quality assurance, enhance the effectiveness of examination bodies, restructuring and strengthening of teacher training programmes, introduction of ICT and the development of a Professional standards manual for teachers.

Perhaps the most critical factors that drive Nigeria's education aspirations are the political and historical antecedents which I have attempted to demonstrate, by looking at the background and developments after independence till the last decade. Incessant political changes have contributed to the ineffective implementation of many of the education policies (Edho, 2009). Changes in governments tend to bring about changes in policies and practices. Given that Nigeria is recognised as one of the E9 countries, with the highest illiteracy rate, challenges of inclusive and basic education for all are fundamental, and most of the policies and reforms tend to centre on addressing the issue. It can be argued that change process which is usually abrupt has led to variations, lack of uniformity and instability in the Nigerian education system. Without thorough consultation with stakeholders, adequate preparation and planning of the implementation process, any new policy is bound to face obstacles.

2.5 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF ENGLISH EDUCATION

In view of the comparative approach adopted in this study, a brief account of the background and developments of education in English education will highlight the antecedents and trends in both countries.

2.5.1 Emergence of Education in England

Different types of schools emerged in the early nineteenth century, after the industrial revolution. These included; Industrial schools, where children received training in manual crafts and elementary instruction; Technical schools which focused mainly on technical skills; Sunday schools which provided basic education and was founded upon religious grounds; Monitorial schools where hundreds of children were taught in a class at the same time following repetitive exercises after a class monitor ; Infant schools which catered for children aged two and above and the Elementary schools where older children were taught the 3Rs (reading writing and arithmetic) (Gillard, 2011; Williams, 1961).

The church played a significant role in the provision of education and schools especially for the poor since education was not free at that time. Although the state had contributed to the provision of education as early as 1833, the government did not take responsibility until 1870 when free compulsory education conducted in formal institutions began and schooling made compulsory for children between ages 5 to 10 (Haralambos and Holborn, 2008; Gillard, 2007). The state became responsible for secondary education after the Fishers Act of 1918, and attendance was made compulsory up to age 14. The school leaving age was further raised to 15 in 1947, and then to 16 in 1972.

After the Second World War a new tripartite educational system was introduced, which was based on the 1944 Education Act (Butler Act). In the new tripartite system, secondary schools were categorised into: Grammar, Technical and Secondary modern schools. Grammar schools were selective in admission and catered mostly for the academically gifted children who passed the 11+ examinations, while others attended Secondary Modern which focused on training pupils in practical skills and equipping them for less skilled jobs and home management or the technical schools where they were trained in mechanical and science subjects in order to prepare them for technical occupations.

The tripartite system faced criticisms based on the sociological evidence that selection created discrimination in favour of the middle class pupils who tended to go to the grammar schools. It was perceived to have damaged the self-esteem of many children in the secondary modern or technical schools and was neither

objective, accurate or fair (Browne, 2006; Benn and Chitty, 1996). Children of average or less ability, who did not pass the 11+ exams, were deprived of the quality education provided in the grammar schools given the emphasis on meritocracy. Young (2004) claimed that grammar schools created a new elite and an underclass match which would eventually lead to renewed inequality. This supports conflict theorists' claim of the function of education being responsible for inequality and social stratification in society.

In response to the criticisms comprehensive schools were introduced by the Labour Government which abolished the 11+ examination in the 1970s and developed a unified secondary system of education. Comprehensive schools were all ability schools which removed the selection process based on the 11+ examination and had open access to all (Browne, 2006; Hargreaves, 1982; Rubinstein and Simon, 1973). Currently in England the school system is mainly comprehensive however there are some areas where selection is based on academic ability.

2.5.2 Key Developments in English Education in the Last Two Decades

Education in England has gone through a myriad of changes and developments in both theory and practice in the last two decades. Different education Acts, reforms and key events have been introduced and implemented by different Governments which brought about changes in the educational system, however, key legislation relating to teaching and primary education in the last two decades are examined.

A key development in English education was the 1988 *Education Reform Act* (ERA) which was the most important piece of legislation since the 1944 Education Act. Most of the changes introduced by the 1988 Act reduced democratic control of the educational system, and increased centralised control delegated to school governors, head teachers and parents. It established the framework for the National Curriculum which was one of the most distinctive features and important aspect of the Act (Brighouse and Moon, 1990).

Prior to 1988, there was no standard or common curriculum being used by schools in England. Schools devised their own curricula and teachers use their own ideas and methods to teach children based on their age groups and what they were expected to know at different stages of their education. The curriculum at primary

level was largely determined on the basis of commercially available textbooks, while for older pupils it was based on public examination syllabi. The concept of a common National Curriculum was initiated by the former Prime Minister, James Callaghan at Ruskin College in 1976 (Fowler, 1990). It was claimed that little attention was paid to reading writing and arithmetic, parents complained about new, informal, uniform teaching methods and teachers' lack of adequate professional skills and ability to instil in children a concern for hard work and good manners (Barber, 1996; Fowler, 1990).

The ERA 1988 radically changed the process of curriculum development and reform, imposing on schools a national program based on core and foundation subjects, four key stages of learning, programmes of study, and attainment targets (Troman and Jeffery, 2008; Whitaker, 1993), Standards were to be raised by ensuring that all pupils studied a broad and balanced range of subjects throughout their compulsory schooling and by also setting clear objectives of what children over the full range of ability should be able to achieve (DES 1987,p.3-4). The aim was that pupils developed, from an early age, the essential literacy and numeracy skills they need to learn and to provide them with a guaranteed full and rounded 'entitlement' to learning however, teachers did not receive it in good faith (Fowler 1990).

The National curriculum faced criticisms from scholars, teachers and the general public with regards to the curriculum content, league tables as being invalid, pedagogy, the nature of the SATs (Standard Attainment Tests) and too much focus on the 3Rs (Alexander, 2011; Alexander et al, 2009; Boyle and Bragg, 2006; Crawford 2000; Kelley, 1990). It also had an impact on the teaching profession and affected the strategic activity of teachers, their capacity to initiate, shape and popularize curricular practices and it closed down many areas of discretion previously available to them (Ball, 1994). There was a weakening of teacher trade unions, a sharp increase in teacher workload and the monitoring of their work. It is claimed to have resulted in loss of job satisfaction, increase in early retirement and shortage of teachers (Kelly, 1990). Troman and Jeffery (2008), argue that although the curriculum was introduced to raise the educational achievement of students, however, it has led to increased performativity and reduced creativity in the teaching profession. Hargreaves (1998), argues that the

hidden curriculum is often more powerful in its impact on children and encourages creativity more than the formal national curriculum. Other changes and reforms in the education system which had an impact on schools and the teaching profession include;

The White Paper², *Excellence in Schools* (1997), published by the Labour Government was another significant education reform. It focused more on standards, selection and privatization, rather than structures. It gave priority to literacy and numeracy in primary schools, amendment of performance tables to show students' progress, school inspection and establishment of standards and effectiveness unit.

The Teaching and Higher Education Act 1998 made provision for the establishment of GTCE and with respect to registration, qualification training of teachers. The Act allowed the Secretary of State to make decisions. The main responsibility was to ensure maintenance of standards of teaching, and conduct of teachers, role of the teaching profession, training, professional development, performance management and recruitment into teaching. This was a significant move towards concretising and establishing teaching as a profession in England.

The 2001 White Paper: *Schools Achieving Success* addressed the need for greater diversity and flexibility and high standards, supporting teachers and schools to deliver change and encouraging innovation in the best schools. The aim was to have a school system which values opportunity for all and embraces diversity and autonomy as a means to achieve it, so that schools can cater better for the diverse requirement and aspirations of the young persons. Underpinning the White Paper was a resolute commitment to raising teaching standards to build a world class teaching profession. It expected that clear targets should be established and schools and teachers should have better evidence available to enable them evaluate their performance (DfES, 2001).

The Schools White Paper (2010): *The importance of teaching* set out the policy of the Coalition Government with the primary aim to reform the education system and improve the teaching profession. A new school system including academies,

² White papers are issued by the government and lay out policy, or proposed action, on a topic of current concern.

supporting teachers', parents and organisations to set up free schools will be encouraged to meet parental demand especially in areas of deprivation. Schools will be encouraged to work with each other and the most outstanding schools will be converted to academy status which is a self-governing school directly funded by the central government and independent of direct control by local government in England (DfE, 2010).

The White paper was committed to raising teacher status, entry requirements, quality and professional development and giving teachers more power to deal with pupils' behaviour. The Paper proposes to reform initial teacher training, increase the quality of entrants into teaching, improve the current school curriculum, and allow schools have more freedom from unnecessary bureaucracy. Teachers are also expected to receive effective professional development throughout their career with opportunities to observe and work with other teachers which further highlights the relevance of CPD in teaching.

The former General Teaching Council in England (GTCE) and TDA (Teachers Development Agency) have been replaced with the Teacher Agency, to be responsible for setting standards and improving teaching and learning, ensuring CPD of teachers and also regulating the teaching profession, by working with employers to ensure that teachers are registered, dealing with issues of misconduct and incompetence. Funding and accreditation of institutions offering initial teacher training in England, training and development of the school workforce and improving the quality and efficiency of all routes into teaching are inclusive functions of the Teacher Agency. Although these reforms have laudable aims and objectives, the White paper like other reforms has faced criticisms including limited evidence of structural change and training of teachers to meet increased demands of proposals and increased bureaucracy (Young, 2011; NASUWT, 2011).

Having looked at the background and key developments in education in Nigeria and England, it is evident that there is a parallel in the trend of progression in both countries even through at different levels. Dating back to the origin of education in both countries, it has shown how the education systems have undergone changes including different legislation and reforms which have an impact on the

teaching profession. Although most of the reforms are designed to facilitate improvement in both quality and standard of education to meet the changing needs of the labour market, they appear to be politically motivated. The trend shows that every government comes into office with plans for new legislation, policies, programme or agenda which receive regular criticisms by stakeholders.

2.6 CURRENT EDUCATION SYSTEM AND SCHOOL STRUCTURE

Having looked at how the education systems have developed, this section describes and illustrates how the education systems in the two countries are structured, and perform similar functions, drawing from the functionalist's perspective.

2.6.1 School Structure in Nigeria and England

According to the structural functionalist each country has its own system and interrelated structure and is divided into similar stages i.e. preschool, primary, and secondary and higher education with the exception of further education which is peculiar to the English system. This is illustrated in tables 2.1 and 2.2.

- i) **Pre-Primary Education** is provided for children below five years. Both countries have similar institutions including play groups and nurseries. Children between ages three to five attend nurseries which are either state funded or private. England has a highly developed preschool system which is run separately from primary schools and are inspected and monitored by OFSTED (Office for Standards in Education). Children in this category are entitled to 15 hours of free learning per week, in either which may be private or state run. Nigeria, children aged three and four attend nurseries which are mostly run by private schools. There is no state provision or funding from the government for this age group. Nursery schools are also inspected by the education inspection.
- ii) **Primary Education** is the first stage of compulsory education; with a similar age range of five to eleven years in both countries. There are several differences however between the countries with regards to structure, organisation, curriculum, teacher qualification, teaching style, distribution and proportion. In England, primary schools are divided into two; infant school for children between ages 5 to

7 (key stage 1) and junior school for ages 7 to 11 (key stage 2) as shown in table 2.2. In some cases the two phases are in separate locations, in others they are combined in one building. There are no sub divisions into infant and junior sections in Nigeria. At the end of key stage 2, all pupils in England undergo SAT (Standard Attainment Tests) in the core subjects of the national curriculum (i.e. English, Maths and Science) which is similar to the common entrance examination held in Nigerian primary schools. In England, results are presented in league tables which show the ranking of schools based on the attainment levels in the core subjects. There are no systematised ranking system or league tables in primary schools in Nigeria which shows a difference in the mode of operation.

Age range is not strictly adhered to in Nigerian primary schools (especially private) as some children leave after the fifth year instead of staying till year six once they gain admission to a secondary school which may be attributed to a mix of contextual factors including parental influence, socio economic factors, and cultural issues. This shows that policy guiding age and admission into schools is not strictly adhered to especially in private schools, which shows a gap between policy and practice. In both countries, state schools operate a smooth transition into secondary level after pupils undertake examinations, whereas private and independent schools are selective and conduct special entrance exams for prospective students. Another peculiar difference between both countries is the curriculum content and teaching style which is mainly teacher centred in most Nigerian schools; typical of African countries as oppose to the learner centred learning style in English schools (Chisolm, 2012; Barrett, 2007). In terms of the organisation and administration, the Local Education Authority is responsible for overseeing primary education in England including, funding, admissions, staff recruitments and ensuring pupils educational achievement, whereas in Nigeria, the state and local government education boards oversee primary education.

- iii) **Secondary Education-** In England is free and compulsory from ages 11 to 16 currently (17 from 2013 and 18 by 2015), whereas in Nigeria free education extends to the first three years of secondary education following the introduction of the UBE scheme. In England, secondary education is categorised into key stage 3 (ages 11 to 13) and key stage 4 (ages 14 to 16). Students sit for GCSE (General Certificate in Secondary Education) exams during the last two years of key stage 4

which marks the end of compulsory education. In Nigeria secondary school is divided into the JSS (Junior Secondary School) from ages 11 to 13 and SSS (Senior Secondary School) from ages 14 to 16. At the end of the third year of JSS students sit for the junior West African Examination Council (WAEC) and National Examinations Council (NECO) exams to gain entry into the state senior secondary school. At the end of SSS, students sit for SSCE (Senior School Certificate Examination) and Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination, (UTME) formerly known as JAMB (Joint Admissions Matriculation Board), which qualifies them to gain admission into a University if they meet the requirements. There are also entrance examinations into private Universities in Nigeria.

- iv) **Further Education** is peculiar to England where the majority of students continue to Further education for an additional two years after secondary school (i.e. between ages sixteen to eighteen). This can be at a sixth form in an independent school or FE College. Students may study for A (Advanced) level or BTEC (Business and Technology Education Council) qualification. In the Nigerian system, there is no provision for further education as students are admitted into the University once they meet the requirement.
- v) **Higher Education** in England is open to students from 18 onwards and admission is usually based on students 'A' level results or a recognised equivalent. This is quite similar to the Nigerian system however entry age is often at 17. Students may undertake a three or four years bachelor's degree in a University or Higher education institution, depending on the course and discipline.

Table 2.1: Nigerian School Structure

Level of Education	School level	School Year	Age Range
Pre-primary Education	Nursery School	Nursery 1	3-4
		Nursery 2	4-5
Basic Education (9 years)	Primary School	Year 1	5-6
		Year 2	6-7
		Year 3	7-8
		Year 4	8-9
		Year 5	9-10
		Year 6	10-11
	Junior Secondary (JS) School	JS 1	11-12
		JS 2	12-13
		JS 3	13-14
Secondary Education (3 years)	Senior secondary (SS) School	SS 1	14-15
		SS 2	15-16
		SS 3	16-17
Tertiary / Higher Education (4 years)	College of Education, University.		17+

Table 2.2: British School Structure

Curriculum Stage	School Year	Age	Types Of Schools	
Early Years Foundation stage	Nursery	3-4	Nursery / Pre –school	
	Reception	4-5	Infant School	Primary School
Key Stage 1	Year 1	5-6		
	Year 2	6-7		
	Year 3	7-8		
Key Stage 2	Year 4	8-9	Junior School	
	Year 5	9-10		
	Year 6	10-11		
Key Stage 3	Year 7	11-12	Secondary School	
	Year 8	12-13		
	Year 9	13-14		
Key Stage 4 GCSE	Year 10	14-15		
	Year 11	15-16		
A level	Year 12	16-17	Sixth form college or Further Education college	
NVQ		17-18		
Higher Degree Education		18+	University or HE Institution	

The two school systems are quite similar in structure as shown in the tables 2.1 and 2.2, however, some disparities exist. Nurseries in England receive some support from the government which does not apply in the Nigerian system where funding only begins at primary level. The entry age into the school levels, and the number of years spent in nursery and primary schooling are similar but at the secondary level, the number of compulsory years spent in Nigeria is three whereas in England it is five. Most students in England attend FE colleges or 6th form colleges after secondary school (currently 75%), whereas most Nigerian students who complete senior secondary, successfully proceed directly to the University. In England, free and compulsory education exists until the end of secondary whereas in Nigeria, students have only nine years free compulsory education at primary until junior secondary. The next section compares the types of schools in both countries.

2.7 TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN NIGERIA AND ENGLAND

Given that the research focuses on the two different types of schools, in Nigeria and England, it is important to examine and identify contextual issues. The two types of schools in both countries are the state maintained and Private / independent.

2.7.1 Public/ State Schools

In Nigeria, public schools are owned and maintained by the Local Government Education Authority (LGEA). They are non-fee paying and the Government is responsible for providing the necessary facilities required for the smooth running of the school and also the staff. They follow the Nigerian curriculum strictly, and mainly recruit children from lower working class families who cannot afford to pay for private education. Public schools in Nigeria are characterised by a high pupil to teacher ratio of 1:50 or more, with little or no individual attention and less commitment on the part of the teacher (Adebite, 2007; Abelabu, 2005; Francis, 1998). The poor quality of education in public schools has been an on-going issue in Nigeria for over two decades and studies indicate the dilapidated state of most public schools and high level of dissatisfaction amongst teachers (Oni, 2011; Adebayo, 2009; Adelabu, 2005; Abdulhakeem, 1992). In terms of percentage of children in state schools, this varies across the country depending on the location and demographic characteristics, however statistics show that a higher percentage of children in urban areas attend private schools while rural areas have more children attending public schools and low fee paying private schools (Harma, 2011, ERC, 2009; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Tooley et al, 2005). The Inspectorate Division of the Ministry of Education is responsible for inspecting state and private schools.

State Schools in England are also maintained by LEAs (Local Education Authorities) which receive the majority of funding for both current and capital expenditure. State schools are financed through the tax system and children between the ages five to sixteen are entitled to free education. However, recent changes by the Coalition Government includes establishment of free schools and academies which are allowed a level of autonomy (DfE, 2010). State schools in both countries follow a national curriculum and are regularly inspected by the

inspectorate body OFSTED. Statistics show that 93 % of school age children in England attend state maintained schools including middle and working class. This indicates a higher level of satisfaction hence better patronage of state schools in the English system due to better conditions of teaching and learning the standard of education and teaching conditions (Green et al, 2007). State schools in England are further categorised into;

- Academies are independently managed ability schools sponsored by business, faith or voluntary groups in partnership with the Department for Education and the local authority.
- Faith Schools follow a religious centred educational curriculum, admission procedure and staffing policies.
- Grammar schools where selection is based on academic ability in a few areas for example, Kent.
- Special schools which cater for children with special educational needs and disabilities.
- Voluntary controlled schools are mostly church schools and are owned by a charitable foundation.
- Free schools are independent state schools which benefit from the same freedom and autonomy as academies.

This sub categorisation of state schools exists only in the English system. Although state schools in both countries have similar operational structures, a huge disparity exists with regards to the management and quality of education received which in turn reflects in better job prospects in English state schools.

2.7.2 Private / Independent Schools

Private schools in Nigeria are owned by private individuals, organisations or religious bodies. They are fee paying and maintained by the fees received from parents, as well as investment from the owners or the Board of Governors, private sources or charitable endowments. These schools employ their own staff, formulating their own policies and offer a flexible curriculum which is centred on the Nigerian curriculum (Akinyemi et.al, 1982). Private schools are monitored by Governing bodies and have their own curriculum and admission policies, and are

generally entrusted for provision of quality education, due to failure of the state system. Hence a higher percentage of the population patronise private schools. Whilst inspectorate division of the Education Department serves as a monitoring body for private schools, the Department for Policy and Implementation (DPI) is responsible for formulating policies that govern the management of schools (Tsigas, 2006). Private schools have an association known as NAPPs (National Association of Proprietors Private Schools) which schools are expected to be registered with although it is not mandatory. Private schools in Nigeria generally offer a higher standard of education than Public schools. However, there is a contrary view about private school in the rural and suburban areas which are also perceived to be of poor standard (Harma, 2011; Oni, 2011, Tooley et al, 2005).

In the Nigerian system, there is a three-tier categorisation within the private sector which is typical of most states. It largely reflects social status, income of parents, school standard and academic performance, type of curriculum, proximity, location, and quality of teachers. The first category is the 'class A' schools, usually patronised by high income families, or people who want to be identified as part of the social elite. Parents are particularly interested in the curriculum and special attractions offered by the school. They usually have a low pupil to teacher ratio and attract the best teachers due to good remuneration, professional development opportunities and a good welfare package. There is some resemblance with the model C schools in South Africa as described by Johnson et al (2000). According to Johnson et al, such schools are mostly attended by high status elites and are comparable with the private schools in developed western countries with regards to facilities, teachers, resources and opportunities which fit the description of 'class A' schools in Nigeria. The second category of 'class B' schools, are also above average in terms of quality of education offered and are patronised by those interested in private education and can afford the school within this category. Due to the high fees in the 'class A' school, (which only a minority of the population can afford) there are more schools in the 'class B' category in the urban areas, hence creating a more competitive market in this category. Some 'class B' schools are also found in the suburban areas as the population growth in these areas is beginning to attract some middle class families.

The third category 'class C' schools are the low fee paying private schools which cater for children who live in the suburbs and whose parents cannot afford the fees of the middle or upper class category, or cope with the distance to better schools in the urban areas. The fees are much lower than the middle category schools due to their location in suburban areas, where the cost of living is lower than in the urban area. A recent survey of private schools in Lagos showed that these schools provide access to many at minimal cost but at very poor standard of education (Harman, 2011; Tooley et al, 2005). Harman (2011) states that the unplanned growth in the private sector in Nigeria has given rise to concerns regarding the quality of unregulated schools. The quality of education in these schools is compromised as studies have shown (Walford, 2011; Tooley et al, 2005; Johnson et al, 2000). Research indicates that the poor conditions in state primary schools in other African countries have paved way for the private alternatives (Baurer et al, 2002; Johnson et al, 2000; Watkins, 2000). Unlike the misplaced conception that privatization will service only the wealthy minority, many children from poor homes in Nigeria, still benefit from private education targeted for the lower class citizens, although the standard of education in such private schools is perceived to be poor (Harma, 2011; Adebayo, 2009; Tooley and Dixon, 2006). Access to quality education in Nigeria is therefore hugely dependent on the level of affluence and social status which is a major issue in the current education system. As the government is unable to provide quality education for the vast majority of pupils in the state sector there is growing interest of DFID through ESSPIN (Educational Sector Support Programme in Nigeria) in supporting class C schools which cater for the poorest in the slums and rural areas (Harma, 2011 ; ESSPIN, 2010).

Independent schools are private fee paying schools in the English system. A small minority, about seven per cent of school age children, are educated in the private sector. They are flexible and do not have to follow the National Curriculum or require their students to sit for national SATs exams. Independent schools are mainly affiliated to a non-profit organisation, the Independent Schools Council (ISC). Every independent school is however registered with DfE, and the standards are monitored either by OFSTED or the Independent Schools

Inspectorate (ISI), ensuring that the school maintains the standards set down in its registration document. Independent schools are generally perceived to be of high quality. They are selective in their recruitment and are still patronised by a small minority of the populations due to their reputation, smaller class sizes, individual attention and their range of extracurricular activities. Independent schools have an academic culture in which academic achievement is emphasised. This is an example of sorting and selection which the functionalist describes as function of education. Pupils who attend independent schools are usually highly motivated to proceed to higher education targeting top Universities. Unlike in Nigeria independent schools are not graded according to price and social background of pupils although there are elite boarding schools such as Eton, Harrow and Winchester as opposed to the day schools which are cheaper and attract a broader intake from middle class families (Walford, 2011; Green, 2010). Although Walford (2011) attempts to compare the low fee paying school in England with developing countries, there is still a huge disparity in terms of quality of education, teaching conditions availability of resources, infrastructure and management.

2.7.3 Privatisation and Marketization in Schools

As it is widely believed that private education is always better and that progress can only be made through privatisation (Walford, 2011), it can be argued that this is not always the case. This is because of the expansion and infiltration of private schools in rural areas in developing countries as indicated from the above categorisation. Privatization of education in Nigeria is different from that in England. Whilst a real market economy is apparent in the education sector in Nigeria, a quasi-market exists in England where schools are expected to attract particular local markets as established by the ERA 1988. The term quasi-market is used to describe the situation where market forces are introduced in schooling (Walford, 2011), but differs in some respect from the type of competitive markets in Nigeria where there is a huge market for private investors who seem to provide better quality education (Adelabu, 2009). Privatization is widespread in many African countries (Walford, 2011; Uwakwe et al, 2008), and is associated with the transfer of assets of ownership from public to private sector which is a form of marketisation.

Quasi-marketization has become prominent in the last two decades in England (Whitty, 2009; Ball, 2007; Halsey et al, 2002), and it aims at converting the schools' system from a public service to a market, and to transfer powers from local to central government in order to raise the standards and equality of opportunity and to increase effectiveness by encouraging competition between schools (Gillard, 2007; Chitty, 2004; Walford, 1996). Independent schools are also subject to market pressures although they attract a small minority of the population unlike the private schools in Nigeria which cater for about 45% of the population.

Critics have argued that marketization of education leads to greater inequality which is reflected in the social stratification in schools (Walford, 1996). Schools are perceived to serve as a means by which education is provided, to prepare individuals for role allocation in the labour market in society; nevertheless they seem to create social stratification given different categories. The upper class and middle class enjoy more diversity, greater freedom in their occupations, better schooling opportunities and are able to exhibit some level of authority compared to the lower or working class which have limited opportunities. Studies indicate that products of these schools often end up in senior posts in organisations, in key leadership positions and achieve high occupational success (Sutton Trust, 2010; Whitty, 2001; Butler and Savage, 1995). It is argued that education does not offer the same opportunities to the lower classes as it does to the higher classes.

2.8 ESTABLISHING A BASIS FOR COMPARABILITY

Having provided the contextual background and overview of the historical perspectives of the educational systems and in the two countries, it is necessary to establish a basis for comparability and the process of comparing. Comparing England and Nigeria may look like comparing 'apples' and 'bananas', given that the two countries are at different levels of development, however, both countries have educational systems and structures which perform similar functions (Adagiri, 2011). A major issue with comparative research is whether that which we compare is indeed comparable (Heidenheimer et al, 1990). However, being able to identify a common denominator is a vital point to consider when making

comparisons. There are various underpinning factors which facilitate comparability in both countries which include:

- Education systems and structure - Based on the SF approach, the two countries have established educational systems with interrelated structures which are required for effective functioning of the society. The two countries show some resemblance in the types of schools, school structure, age-range, and school calendar. The role of teachers as key agents involved in achieving the aims of education remains the same which is to equip individuals with knowledge and skills they require to function within society. Although there are differences with the modes of operation, they perform the same functions.
- Medium of Instruction- English is adopted as the recognised medium of instruction and communication in Nigerian schools. Sharing a common language for instruction therefore makes comparison easier between the two countries.
- Background of Education and Teacher Training – Education systems and teacher training in Nigeria and England have a common historical background and antecedents with the influence of the European missionaries. Given that Nigeria was colonised by the British, there is some resemblance in the developmental trend in education and emergence of the teaching profession (see Fig 2.1).
- Current Interest in Policy sharing and Knowledge between nations - Various reforms in education policies in many countries involve sharing ideas and best practices between nations. Comparative research in international education has received much attention in recent years as studies indicate (Wermke, 2011; OECD, 2009; Odulowu, 2007; Garuba, 2002; Alexander, 2000; Phillips, 2000).
- System for Teacher Training- The emergence of teacher training in Nigeria parallels that of England, and is intertwined in the influence of the missionaries and colonial power. Both countries have systems and structures for training teachers although there are some disparities based on the stages of development, which is explained in chapter four.

2.9 CONCLUSION

The chapter has explained two underpinning sociological theories which describe the function of education from different perspectives. Whilst emphasising functionalists' perception of education as an agent of socialisation and social mobility it has shown the contribution of privatisation to social stratification and inequality in society as the conflict theorists argue. It also highlighted the limitations and criticisms of structural functionalism according to conflict theorists. The chapter has provided an overview of the historical antecedents of the educational systems in Nigeria and England, demonstrating the interrelation of the structures towards maintenance of the society as a whole, which provides a basis for comparison according to the functionalists' perspective. Given that one of the aims of comparative research is to gain a better understanding of the systems being compared and identifying any similarities and differences, the chapter has provided a general overview of the historical backgrounds, education systems and developments which relate to primary education and teacher development. This demonstrates some resemblance in the developmental antecedents in both countries and highlighted the influence of political factors and quest for improved quality education, on the changes and reforms. The chapter concludes by highlighting key underpinning factors which facilitate comparability in both countries. The next chapter focuses on the concept of professionalism and looks at teaching as a profession, thereby providing a contextual underpinning to the research.

CHAPTER 3

TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an overview of the theoretical framework and historical contexts of the educational system in Nigeria and England and established a basis for comparability. This chapter examines the concepts of professions, professional and professionalism. It focuses on teaching as a profession and describes the specific attributes of professions in fulfilling the needs of the society. It highlights the place of teachers in the professional continuum and explains why they are categorised as semi-professionals. It then looks at teachers status and examines the process of teacher professionalism in both countries.

3.2 PROFESSIONS

Professions are a major feature and one of the fastest growing sectors of the occupational structure in developed and developing countries. Although little is known about the origin of professions, history recalls that they were under the dominance of the church until the sixteenth century when professions became organised and secularized after which they became more prominent (Sinnott, 1962). The concept of profession has different meanings depending on its usage. It may be used by a layman as a synonym for job, work and occupation, or to describe anyone who is neatly dressed and is concerned with a black coated and white-collar occupation. It is in fact used as a marketing slogan by recruitment campaigns to attract employees, and more often as a phrase to describe a job of 'great prestige'. A wide range of individuals such as footballers, athletes, cricketers are sometimes referred to as professionals by the public despite having not had any educational qualification.

There has been a rapid growth of professions in many countries over the last three decades ranging from the well-established and powerful ones such as Medicine, Law and Accounting, as, to those who are still trying to establish their professional status like Teaching and Nursing. According to Haralambos and Holborn (2008), reasons behind such growth include; the increasing complexity of

business demands, expansion of local and national governments and attempts of more groups of workers to get their jobs accepted as 'professional'. This could be attributed to the impact of the competitive global economy and a desire for relevance and recognition in the society.

Sinnett (1962, p.2) describes a profession as an occupation based on special intellectual studying and training while; Spring (1985, p.47) defines it as,

An occupation requiring special knowledge that justifies a monopoly of services granted by government licensing.

According to Kpangban (1997,p.12), a profession is any occupation which demands of its practitioner a prolonged and specialised intellectual and exclusive knowledge and training for the acquisition of special skill and attitude necessary for their particular type of service in the community as well as recognised association for the welfare of both its members and public service.

Two sociological theories which have been used to describe a profession are; the trait and structural-functionalist models. The trait model identifies characteristics or traits that distinguish professions from other occupations which include; skill based knowledge; specific training and education; formal organisation; adherence to codes of conduct; and altruism. The trait model has been criticised because it bases most of the characteristics on established professions like medicine and law, hence there is no theoretical basis that explains why the traits determine a profession (Gerald and Runte, 1995).

The Structural-functionalist model, built on the trait model, thereby provides a theoretical link between the various traits of a professional. The functionalists argue that some of the traits restrain professionals from taking unfair advantage of their specialised knowledge. Doctors, Lawyers and Accountants for example, have specific training which complements their autonomy and monopoly over a body of theoretical knowledge (Etzioni, 1969). Professions have evolved so as to protect the public by ensuring that anyone undertaking these crucial jobs is certified as knowledgeable and trustworthy, to prevent no untrained individual performs the role in the way that this could do great harm.

The Structural-functionalist model is more abstract than the trait model tends which comprises of a list of attributes representing the common core of

professional occupations. There is however some common key attributes according to both models which are;

i) Specific body of Knowledge - A Professional should have a broad knowledge base of whatever area he or she specialises in. To attain this level of knowledge a professional must undergo specialised training which is in accordance with the functionalist's view. However, he or she should be well educated and not just trained.

ii) Altruistic Service - Altruism involves concern for the interest of the community instead of self-interest, therefore, the primary motivation of a professional should be public service rather than personal gain. Quality output, service to mankind and excellence are the essence of the existence of any profession. The wellbeing of the individual and the society must be of paramount importance and priority to a professional. Functionalists see professionals as a positive force in social development and consider public interest as a key focus in any profession (Parsons, 1964).

iii) Code of Conduct – Professionals' behaviour or conduct is controlled by a code of ethics which is established and maintained by a professional association which is a core feature of a profession (Downie, 1990). Each profession has its specific code of conduct and has organisations to which members belong. Failure to uphold the ethical code can lead to expulsion by the professional body.

iv) Autonomy - Professionals are expected to have unlimited autonomy and independence in their practice. Professions control the entrance and conduct of its members but members have freedom to exercise professional judgements. Attainment of professional autonomy for any group or individuals is an indication of society's trust and acceptance of the profession (Shannon and Dan, 1992).

In this context a profession is any occupation with independent practice which requires a specialised training, acquisition of specific knowledge and skill, in an accredited and recognised institution, that is regulated by an established body, and committed to the service of the community.

3.3 PROFESSIONALS

A professional can simply be referred to as an individual who has undergone the relevant training and is recognised as a member of a particular profession. Key skills are acquired during training which are vital for effective practice in any profession and a code of conduct that guides its operation and ensures accountability.

A professional is one who has acquired a set of skills through competency-based training which enables one to deliver efficiently according to contract, a customer led service in compliance with accountability procedures collaboratively implemented and managerially assured. Hoyle (1995, p.60).

In attempting to distinguish different professions, Etzioni (1969) developed the concept of the semi-professionals. In his view these occupational groups do not have the same degree of autonomy as the professionals. He identified characteristics peculiar to the semi-professionals and which distinguish them from the professions. These are; shorter and more specific training, limited degree of commitment, communication of knowledge rather than application of knowledge, less autonomy and predominantly women. These characteristics were common to teachers, nurses, librarians and social workers at the time of writing. Johnson (1972) observed that not all occupations were equally professionalized, given that certain occupations like social work, teaching, and nursing were not as advanced in the process of professionalization as others like law, pharmacy, engineering and medicine. Advancement in professionalism could entail level of research, technological development, innovation, influence and status in the society. There is also a differentiation in the depth of training required to qualify as a professional which contributes to professional identity. Johnson (1972) claimed that not all occupations could be equally professionalised which agrees with Etzioni's categorisation of professionals.

Professionals today are categorised into two types, in terms of their market situation and level of income. The first group are the Higher Professions which include Solicitors, Doctors, Pharmacists, Engineers, Lawyers, Accountants and Architects. The second group are the Lower Professions which include teachers,

nurses, social workers and librarians. Considering their income level, studies show that there has traditionally been a significant difference in the earnings between the two groups of professionals, which is evident in salary scales in most countries (Gottschalk and Joyce, 1998; Routh, 1980). Whilst Haralambos and Holborn focus on the market situation and income level as a basis for categorisation, Etzioni (1969), looks at the degree of autonomy, training and gender issues. It can be argued that income and status are more subject to change than the core realities of autonomy, public service and knowledge. There may be other types of occupations which have high earnings but do not meet the core criteria of a profession for example, celebrities in the media world, sports fashion designer, or a caterer. This is not generalizable as there may be contextual and cultural factors that influence society's perception of some occupations.

3.4 TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

The above overview portrays attributes fundamental to an ideal type profession, although different professions have their own peculiarity. This raises concerns about where teaching lies in the professional continuum. Teaching could be a controversial career to categorise as a profession. Classifying teaching with professions such as law, engineering and medicine, has been challenged by many (Haralambos and Holborn, 2008; Horowitz, 1995; Etzioni, 1969). However, using the fundamental aspects of an ideal profession as a framework, teaching can be viewed in the light of the attributes based on five criteria as analysed by Hoyle (1995);

i) Social Relevance- Looking at teaching from a social point of view, one can claim that it has professional status as it is and remains relevant to every individual and the society at large. Teachers, like doctors or lawyers, are directly involved with people and are responsible for laying the foundation of learning and education for individuals. They are responsible for inculcating in individuals the knowledge of their environment as it relates to their area of specialisation which in turn translates into developing the society. It is claimed that teachers are pivotal to that quality education which is the key to socioeconomic and national development of any country (Omereghe, 2006; Anikweze and Maiyanga,

1996). This highlights the social relevance of the teacher like some other professions and the function it performs.

ii) Specific Training and Knowledge Base- Teacher educators claim that only practice that is based on theoretical models and reflective ideas produces a professional teacher. This is acquired through specific training in an institution, which rejects the claim that anyone can acquire this knowledge through experience and practice. I would argue that practical experience is necessary, but not sufficient as specific training based on theoretical knowledge is required. If teaching is solely based on practical knowledge it is no different from craft oriented occupations like gardening, catering and hair stylists. Umar (2004) claims that teaching requires knowledge of the subject area and skills of imparting such knowledge and these are usually obtained from intellectual training in institutions and colleges.

iii) Practitioner Autonomy- When compared with professions such as pharmacy, medicine and law, teachers have limited autonomy in their jobs especially where there is a national curriculum which is prescriptive (Whitty, 2006; Horowitz, 1995). Downie (1990), argues that a profession should have unlimited autonomy. Central prescription and performativity in teaching, limits the autonomy and creativity of teachers. Teachers have to follow certain directives or guidance to achieve certain tasks to prepare students to pass specific exams, and hence are unable to express their own ideas like higher professionals.

iv) Collective Autonomy - Teaching has not been particularly successful in achieving self-governing status and independence from the state. It has not really enjoyed licensed autonomy that other professions like medicine and law have traditionally held. In many countries teachers are more likely to be organised into trade unions rather than professional associations thus negating one of the qualities of a profession. In developed countries like the United States, Finland, and France, teachers have more autonomy both as individual practitioner and collectively as a profession (OECD, 2009). The National Union of Teachers (NUT) in Nigeria appears to be more concerned about welfare than professional growth and career advancement opportunities of teachers. Although there are a few occasions of the unions' involvement in workshops for teachers, much of the

focus seems to be on resolving contemporary issues related to teachers' working conditions (Garuba, 2007). The NUT in England is also very much involved in advocating for the rights and welfare of teachers, nevertheless it appears to be more organised and involved in professional development activities like conferences and workshops. Multi-unionism is a major feature of employment relations in England and this weakens the power of teachers to take collective control.

v) **Professional Values or Code of Conduct**- With regards to professional values and conduct, one cannot clearly identify any particular set of values in the teaching profession comparable to those of other higher professions such as medicine and law. There are regulatory bodies in Nigeria and England that control and regulate teacher professional standards which are; Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) and Teacher Agency formerly referred to as GTC (General Teaching Council) (GTCE, 2009; TRCN, 2008).

Although teaching has shown similar attributes to other professions, teachers are still not accorded the same status as the higher professions due to several underlying factors. The next section examines possible reasons for teachers' current status in society.

3.5 PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS

Teacher status incorporates the notion of self-esteem of being a teacher and the respect with which they are treated. It reflects the way they are perceived by the society or by teachers themselves and the authority attributed to teachers and the confidence in their professional practice (Hargreaves et al, 2006). Hoyle (2001) suggests outsider perspectives of teachers' status is linked with occupational status, esteem and prestige which are associated with general public perception by virtue of personal qualities that teachers are viewed. From a functionalists view, special position and high status are granted to professionals because they are perceived as able to address a social need of the society, which is acquired through specialised training. However, teachers undergo specialised training and contribute to the needs of the society, yet they are accorded a lower status than other professionals in the society.

3.5.1 Teacher Status in Nigeria and England

Teachers are perceived as professionals of low social status in most developing, low income countries. Recent studies particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, indicate that teachers low status is related to difficult working conditions, low salaries, limited opportunities for professional development and society's perception (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Avalos, 2000; Johnson et al, 2000). Teachers in Nigeria do have a low status due to reasons identified above (Ogiegbaen, 2005). Kolo (2007) asserts that where teachers have a low status or recognition, efforts towards professionalizing them may be difficult. In Nigeria, primary teachers are perceived to have a lower status than in secondary probably due to the minimum qualification for primary teaching is a certificate (NCE) while secondary teachers require a minimum of B.Ed.

Teacher status in England can be viewed from a different perspective as the working conditions, minimum qualifications; remuneration and development opportunities differ from the Nigerian case. The teaching profession has received much attention by the government in the last two decades, which has improved the professional identity and status of teachers in both primary and secondary schools.

The teaching profession is being controlled and regulated by the National College of Teaching and Leadership (NCTL), created on April 1st 2013) but previously by the Teaching Agency (which in turn was formerly known as TDA). NCTL is part of the Department for Education (DfE) which performs some of the functions of the former GTCE including the registration of teachers. The Teachers Agency published a code of ethics that continues to guide the teaching profession and there is still a register of teachers. Disciplinary actions can be taken against teachers who violate any of the professional ethical guidelines and this can lead to revoking of their licence to practice. Teacher unions as well as subject specific professional associations (for example Mathematics and English) also exist in England. Their aim is to further the interests of teachers, improve their professional status and identity and to represent them in negotiations with employers and government with regards to salaries and terms and conditions of service. Teacher status, their values, priorities and regulatory procedures vary in

both case study countries, which is a function of their stages of development and different modus operandi.

3.5.2 Factors Affecting Teachers Status

Studies indicate that several factors affect the professional status of teachers and contribute to their categorisation as semi-professionals (Hargreaves et al, 2007; Goodson and Hargreaves, 1996; OECD, 1990). The main factors include entry requirements, qualification, duration and depth of training, size, remuneration and feminisation.

Entry requirements to become a teacher and the time spent in the preparation are less than other professions including, medicine law, pharmacy, and engineering, thus contributing to the low status accorded to teachers. Other professions require higher grades for enrolment, hence tend to be more competitive and subsequently recognised than teaching. Studies indicate that a number of individuals work as untrained teachers without teaching qualification especially in the developing countries and OECD (Akyeampong and Keith, 2002; OECD, 2009). Some individuals go into teaching as a result of lack of job opportunities elsewhere, which again makes the teaching professional easily accessible. This reduces professional exclusivity of teaching and raises questions of competency (Bennell, 2004). This is rare in higher professions like medicine, law and engineering which require intensive training and have well established professional bodies and prohibit non-qualified employment.

Another reason attributed to teachers' low status is the fact that it has become a number and predominantly female profession particularly at the primary level. It is argued that the high number of women involved in teaching lowers the occupational status (Hargreaves, 2006; Bennell, 2004). This is evidenced by previous studies in different countries (OECD, 2009; Avalos, 2000). A campaign created to boost the image of the teaching profession in France, indicated that masculinity in a profession renders it more attractive and of higher status (OECD, 1990).

Teacher salaries are much lower compared to other professions at the top of the professional continuum. This affects their status and occupational prestige and

esteem. In many developing countries, current concerns about teacher attrition, retention and recruitment have been linked to poor remuneration and their low status (Mkpoakosa and Ndarahutse, 2008; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Avalos, 2000). Hargreaves et al (2007), recognise salaries as reasons why teachers in England may have low status. Teachers' salaries and remuneration are much better in developed societies, but still remain lower than other higher professions.

According to Villegas-Reimers (2003), the way in which teaching is conceived by the society is largely due to the teachers' own perceptions of their role and profession. In fact, the community views teachers as a lower status profession mainly because teachers themselves have not developed a strong professional voice. It is argued that the manner in which teachers see themselves has an impact on their overall performance in the classroom and how they are perceived by the society (Umar, 2004; Hoyle, 2001).

3.6 PROFESSIONALISM

The concept of professionalism is not easy to define as it means different things to different people (Fox, 1992). Freidson (1994) suggests much of the debate about professionalism is clouded by assumptions and inconsistent and incomplete usages. One cannot therefore refer to any definition as universal; however a common ideology can be deduced from various definitions. Millerson (1964, p.2), describes professionalism *as*;

A process whereby an occupation passes through predictable stages of organisational change, whereby a high status is attained.

He claims that this process is brought about either by individuals acting independently of each other or by individuals acting as a group. Hence, it can be viewed as a process with an end state towards which certain occupations are moving and at which others have arrived. Sockett (1996) argues that professionalism is about quality of service, therefore placing priority to service delivery.

According to Hoyle (1995, p.35), professionalism entails those strategies and rhetorics employed by members of an occupation in seeking to improve status, salary and conditions. Hoyle (2001), further describes professionalism as a term

used to describe enhancement of the quality of service; this concurs with Sockett's (1996, p.23) perception of professionalism as a quality of practice. An examination of the various definitions reveals a focus on quality and improvement in status, and the individual's role and responsibility or professional identity. Key words that are common in these definitions are; process, improvement in status and quality. The process could entail training, professional development, membership of a recognised association with a code of conduct which would result to achieving professional status and improving quality.

3.7 TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM IN NIGERIA AND ENGLAND

Prominence has been given to teacher professionalism in Nigeria and England in the last two decades. Much of the debate around teacher professionalism has been in response to initiatives taken by governments which are supposedly aimed at improving teacher quality and controlling teacher activity (Swann, 2010; Garuba, 2007). However the process and level of developments regarding teacher professionalism may vary in different contexts.

3.7.1 Teacher Professionalism in Nigeria

In Nigeria, teacher professionalism has been a central issue in education reforms and has continued to attract attention among stake holders (FME, 2011; TRCN, 2008; Odumuh and Ingawa, 2006). The process of professionalization is at an early stage in Nigeria and the main thrust is to ensure that teachers have the necessary qualifications before teaching in any school. Professionalism however, focuses more on quality assurance and improving the status of teachers which is also underpinned by training and professional development (Kolo, 2007; Garuba, 2007).

Teacher professionalism involves the process of professionalising teaching and it hinges on the professional identity of teachers which reflects on the quality of education. As studies reflect, the teaching profession has suffered numerous setbacks and has changed from an occupation with a noble origin of colonial influence to one struggling to attain professional status (Ogiegbaen, 2005). According to Kolo (2007, p.133) teacher professionalization is perceived as a *sine qua non* for the revitalisation of the education sector in Nigeria.

Teacher professionalism entails two components; teacher training and teacher professional development which shall be discussed in the following chapter. While teacher training refers to all pre service trainings for the acquisition of basic teaching skills and entry qualifications, teacher professional development includes all forms of in-service training and capacity building programmes.

As affirmed by the National Policy on Education (FME 1998, p.34) article 64a;

Teaching is a legally recognised profession in Nigeria: in this regard, Government had set up the Teachers' Registration Council Nigeria to control and regulate the practice of the profession.

According to article 64b:

Those already engaged in teaching but not professionally qualified shall be given a period of time within which to qualify for registration or leave the profession.

The original period given for upgrade, in consideration of the number of teachers in this category already in the system was till 2007 (TRCN, 2008). Schools and teacher educators are expected to comply while unqualified teachers were advised to upgrade. Studies show that there were still unqualified teachers in many schools (especially private), although current awareness has triggered positive responses from teachers and schools in many states (TRCN, 2009; Isyaku, 2006; Ogiegbaen, 2005; Adelabu, 2005). Other measures towards teacher professionalism in Nigeria have been proposed, with specific mandates focused on teacher professionalism some of which are mentioned below (TRCN Act 31 section 7 and 8).

Registration with TRCN has been made compulsory for every teacher with the minimum qualification of NCE, while unqualified teachers are expected to upgrade. Efforts to eliminate unqualified teachers in the system are being intensified and opportunities for upgrading are being promoted (TRCN, 2008). TRCN is mandated to organise internship schemes and induction programmes to equip fresh graduates with necessary professional skills to prepare them for practice (TRCN, 2008). TRCN is also involved in organising capacity building programs across the country to meet the needs of teachers and improve their knowledge and skills (TRCN, 2008). Further efforts towards teacher professionalism are the constitution of Teachers' Investigation Panel (TIP) in

2007, which is meant to investigate allegations and cases of misconduct against registered teachers. The panel investigates issues to help maintain high standards in the teaching profession which include professional misconduct and issues although there is limited empirical evidence of the activities of the TIP.

TRCN collaborates with various stakeholders and international development partners including; UNESCO, World Bank and UNICEF, to take advantage of training opportunities for teachers. It also collaborates with GTCE (Graduate Teachers Council of England), UCET (Universities Council for Education of Teachers) and is registered as an institutional member of College of Teacher (COT), England, to gain understanding of the practice internationally. These collaborative approaches do not necessarily provide evidence to show how the ideas acquired have contributed to enhance teacher professionalism in Nigeria as there are limited research findings on this. Odumuh and Ingawa (2006) examine the concept of teacher professionalism in view of the actualisation of the role of TRCN. They argue that the implementation process has been saddled by various challenges, for example; lack of compliance by schools, certification issues, lack of awareness of policies, inadequate statistics or data and shortage of competent teachers.

Most of the activities embarked upon by the institutional bodies focus primarily on upgrading through distance learning education. According to the national policy on education, NTI is responsible for providing courses of instruction leading to upgrading and certification of teachers using distance learning techniques. In line with this, sandwich programmes have been designed for teachers who cannot attend full time training due to their jobs. Such programs are intended for Grade II or NCE teachers and are organised by Universities or Colleges of Education. Stringent measures to upgrade to NCE level were introduced in 2007 as a collaborative programme between TRCN and NTI. This includes; The Special Teacher Upgrading Programme (STUP) and Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) which are government initiatives and temporary routes which for unqualified teachers to upgrade their qualifications in view of the EFA target.

These programs intended to bring about innovation and improvement in delivery of primary education in the country, however there is limited evidence of implementation and impact (UBE, 2003). Attainment of professionalism in Nigeria may be difficult where monitoring bodies are weak in implementing policies. Most of the provisions especially on the continuing education of teachers has continued to remain on the pages of the policy documents Garuba (2007, p.156).

There is indeed a wide gap between policy provision and implementation which is one of the main challenges in the education system as many have observed (Garuba, 2007; Tahir, 1994). Various policies have emerged in the last two decades, however, that are more or less presumptuous political propaganda with limited evidence of implementation or impact. Makinde (2005), asserts that policy implementation in Nigeria has been a major issue and can be attributed to communication lapses, lack of resources or adequate manpower to follow up the process, inconsistency, dispositions and bureaucratic structures. In addition the absence of adequate evaluation based on empirical evidence makes it difficult to determine the impact of government policies. The nature of teaching is being fundamentally altered by a number of different policy initiatives, the cumulative effect of which is to greatly increase central government control over the teaching profession.

3.7.2 Teacher Professionalism in England

Throughout the western world, professionalism of teachers has been placed under considerable pressure by the move towards centralised curricular and assessment as a means of accountability for what goes on in classrooms (Bubb and Earley, 2007). The debates around the concept of teacher professionalism have intensified in recent years in England as governments have sought to articulate new concepts of professionalism (Whitty, 2006; Hargreaves and Fullan, 1998). Given the nature and extent of changes externally imposed on the schools as explained in chapter two, there has been much pressure on education stakeholders responsible for the management of teachers' professional development.

The last two decades in England, have witnessed devolution, marketization, alongside increasing central prescription and performativity demands which are in

fact global trends in education sectors (Ball, 2008; Whitty, 2006). Major policy changes have led to changes and developments in the nature of teacher professionalism. The key national strategies (DfEE, 1988; DfEE, 1998; DfEE, 2001; DfE, 2010) have changed the way in which teacher professionalism is construed. Since the introduction of these reforms including performance management, there has been increased prescription of content, organization and process of teaching and learning, assessment linked to accountability and a systematically reviewed performance objectives for teachers' performance management. Raising the standard and quality of the teaching profession is one of the key priorities of the most recent reform (DfE, 2010). Much debates around teacher performativity emerged as a response to the introduction of the different government initiatives has led to the claim of de-professionalization of teachers (Ball, 2008; Whitty, 2006).

Performativity is a mode of regulation that employs judgements comparisons and display as a means of incentive, control and bringing about change based on rewards and sanction. Troman and Jeffery (2008), argue that the influence of the legislated reforms and initiatives to standardise and professionalise teaching is pervasive. The reforms have rather reduced the manner in which teachers can exercise their own capacity to think, for themselves to theorise, and generate their own practice (Swann et al, 2010).

Hargreaves (1994) identifies shifts in culture, values and practices of teachers which have resulted from government reforms in England but may be applied to other countries of the world. According to Hargreaves, trends in which teachers' work is becoming less isolated, their planning more collaborative, their teaching more outcome oriented and with new forms of relationship with students, parents and colleagues. The main propositions at the heart of the 'new professionalism' centre on investment in teachers professional development towards school improvement (Hargreaves, 1994). Day (1999) argues that, structures which nourish the new professionalism empower schools and teachers not only by providing them with the commitment and energy to pursue improvements in teaching and learning but also by increasing the school's capacity to undertake further development. Whitty (2006), goes on to argue that a key focus of professionalism should be on how teachers can maximize children's opportunities

to learn. This emphasises the importance of equipping teachers with adequate skills and knowledge through professional development.

Prior to the era of professionalism in England, teachers were perceived to lack appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes for a modern society (Barber, 2005). Since the alleged golden age of teacher autonomy in the mid-1970s teachers experienced considerable degree of freedom to decide on what and how to teach dramatic changes in policy took place which changed the nature of teacher professionalism. Following this was the informed professionalism phase when teachers will have obtained appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes so that they can be granted greater autonomy to manage their own affairs (Whitty, 2006). This has led to a shift in the values and practices of teachers in England, popularly referred to as the new professionalism, which involves a movement away from the teacher's traditional professional authority and autonomy towards new forms of relationships with colleagues, students and parents (Ball 2008; Evans, 2008; Freidson, 2001; Hargreaves 1994).

In recent years there been an upsurge of policies promoting creativity in teaching in English primary schools, encouraging teachers to incorporate creative and innovative practices into the curricula. Hargreaves (1998), argued that creating an educational transformation in England would require a move towards high thrust innovative culture driven by constructive partnerships which he conceives as creative professionalism. Troman and Jeffery (2008) suggest that creativity, politics reinforce a professional culture of care thus reviving some aspect of the professional culture of the past. Troman and Jeffery (2008), found that teachers in English primary schools were more interested in a creative professional identity.

Much of the emphasis towards teacher professionalism in England centres around professional development, professional identity, and teacher autonomy and other innovative forms of professionalism; while professionalism in Nigeria is more focused on ensuring teachers are qualified and establishing institutional structures which will oversee teachers' professional development. It can be argued that whilst contextual, cultural and structural factors may reflect the way in which teacher professionalism is perceived in both countries; the impact of government

reforms plays a significant part in constructing teachers' professionalism as does the stage of economic development and the functional needs of the labour market.

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of teaching as a profession, which provides a background and understanding of the need for CPD. It has examined the concepts of profession and professionalism in view of the characteristics of a professional drawing upon both trait and functionalists perspectives. It has highlighted factors affecting the status of teachers as professionals in society, outlined key issues with the teaching profession in primary schools in both countries. It argued that teaching can be considered as a profession based on the fact that it possess key attributes of professionals although it fits into the category of semi profession according to Etzioni. Having looked at both countries, it can be argued that the notion of professionalism is subject to contextual interpretation which may change over time based on social, economic and political factors. In this chapter, I have attempted to paint a picture of teaching as a profession in the two contexts which provides a background to examine training and CPD which is the key focus of the study, in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

TEACHER TRAINING AND CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (CPD)

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter examined teaching as a profession, what constitutes their professional status and professionalism in the two countries. This chapter focuses on how teachers are trained and the issue of their CPD which are key thrusts towards professionalization. It compares training in Nigeria and England pointing out similarities and differences based on its emergence and current status. It investigates CPD, highlighting its relevance to teacher professionalism, drawing upon the research questions; it looks at types of CPD activities, evaluation, effectiveness, limitations and motivating factors towards participation in CPD making reference to related studies in various countries. The aim of the chapter is to provide an understanding of CPD and key themes the study seeks to investigate.

4.2 EMERGENCE OF TEACHER TRAINING

This section gives a brief overview of the emergence of teacher education and developments focusing on primary education in both countries. This will help the reader understand how the teaching profession has developed and changed over the last two decades reflecting the process of professionalization.

4.2.1 Emergence of Teacher Training in Nigeria

Teacher training in Nigeria was greatly influenced by the Christian missionaries. Individuals served as auxiliary teachers³ by learning under close supervision of their European masters. Missionary schools were used as a means to train individuals mainly for missionary work and service in the church (Umar, 2004; Fafunwa, 1974). Teacher training colleges were established by the missionaries but produced 'half baked' teachers who were taught the basic skills of teaching but based on religious backgrounds (Umar, 2004; Adesina, 1977). Formal teacher education began during the colonial era, with the establishment of a training

³ These were student teachers who learnt from watching the teachers based on the monitorial system of the Christian missionaries.

school by the Church Missionary Society (CMS). Preparation for independence in 1960, led to the establishment of the advanced teachers college otherwise known as the College of Education (Fafunwa, 1991). Teacher training institutions and colleges were established in different parts of the country, which produced Grade II teachers through two year training after secondary education. This was the minimum requirement for teaching after the independence period.

With the high demand for teachers and in an attempt to improve the quality of the teachers, a three year programme; National Certificate in Education (NCE), was introduced in 1976 as a route into teaching. By 1998, Grade II qualification was discontinued and NCE became the minimum qualification into teaching and remains till date. NCE is awarded by Colleges of Education or National Teachers Institute (NTI).

4.2.2 Emergence of Teacher Training in England

Training of elementary school teachers during the early nineteenth century, was based on the monitorial system where older pupils taught the younger ones; an embryonic form of apprenticeship (Henderson, 1978). A more systematic form of training was introduced in 1846 in England, which was the pupil–teacher system as the need for teachers increased due to the increase in the number of pupils in schools. This was a two years training in pupil-teacher centres run by local school boards with teaching practice in their elementary schools. Some proceeded to training colleges which were run by the Church of England with some support from the local governments for about two years (Henderson, 1978). As the need for teachers to improve their professional qualification became apparent around 1925, in-service training received much recognition and improvement.

More formal training colleges were established after the Second World War, due to more demand for teachers as the number of schools and pupils continuously increased. By 1960, the training programme was extended to three years Certificate in Education course (Cert Ed), (which became the minimum requirement into teaching), and training colleges were re-designated Colleges of Education in 1963. As the need for professionalization in teaching became more apparent, Cert.Ed was discontinued in 1983 after which teaching became an all

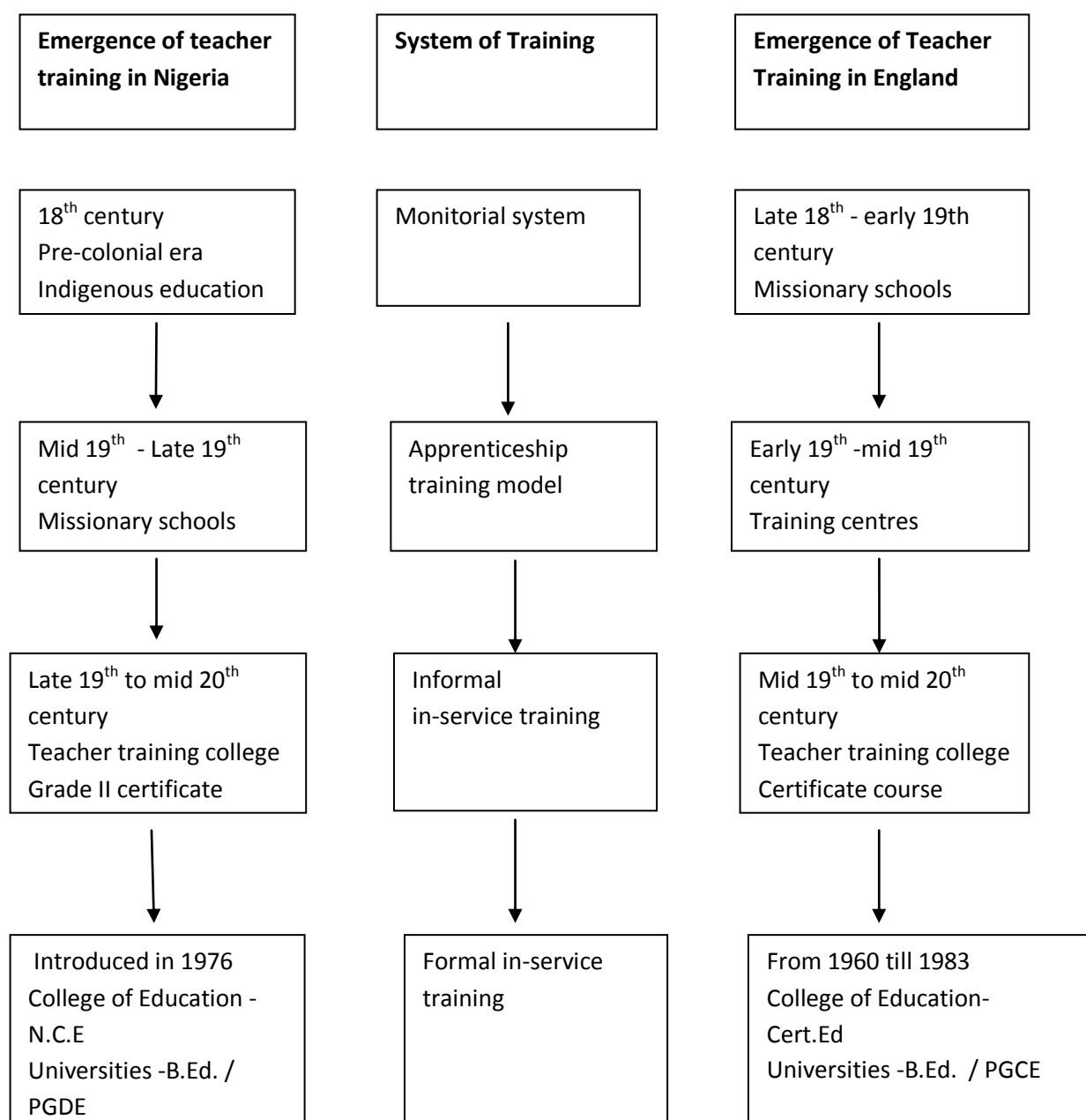
graduate profession, and Universities and Colleges of Higher Education became responsible for teacher training.

The background of teaching in both countries appears to be intertwined with the activities of the Christian missionaries in the nineteenth century. A common antecedent observed here is the constant increase in demand for teachers due to an increase in the number of pupils enrolling in schools and expansion of education. In England, this took place after the post war whereas in Nigeria, it was during the pre-independence (colonial) period. This placed a demand on the government to formalise teacher training and improve the quality of teachers to enable them to meet the demands of society. This supports the functionalist's perception of the function of education in meeting the needs of society, and shows how the structures for training teacher evolved till the current state.

Training individuals started as missionary work which then developed to an apprenticeship model of training a similar experience in both countries but at different times as indicated in Figure 4.1. Different models of training were adopted at each stage with the emphasis on education and improving the quality and standard of teachers given the influence of globalisation, modernisation and technological advancement. Although there are contextual disparities in the duration and level of training of the countries, there is a parallel in the developmental trend of the teacher training. Avalos (2011) argues that the starting point of teacher training and development in one country may not be relevant in another due to contextual factors in a particular country. Avalos claims that there is a similitude in the process whereby teachers move from one stage to another in different countries which corroborates with the authors' illustration in Figure 4.1. The following section further describes the formal current teacher training system which exists in both countries.

Figure 4.1: Emergence of Teacher Training in England and Nigeria

(Author's schematization)



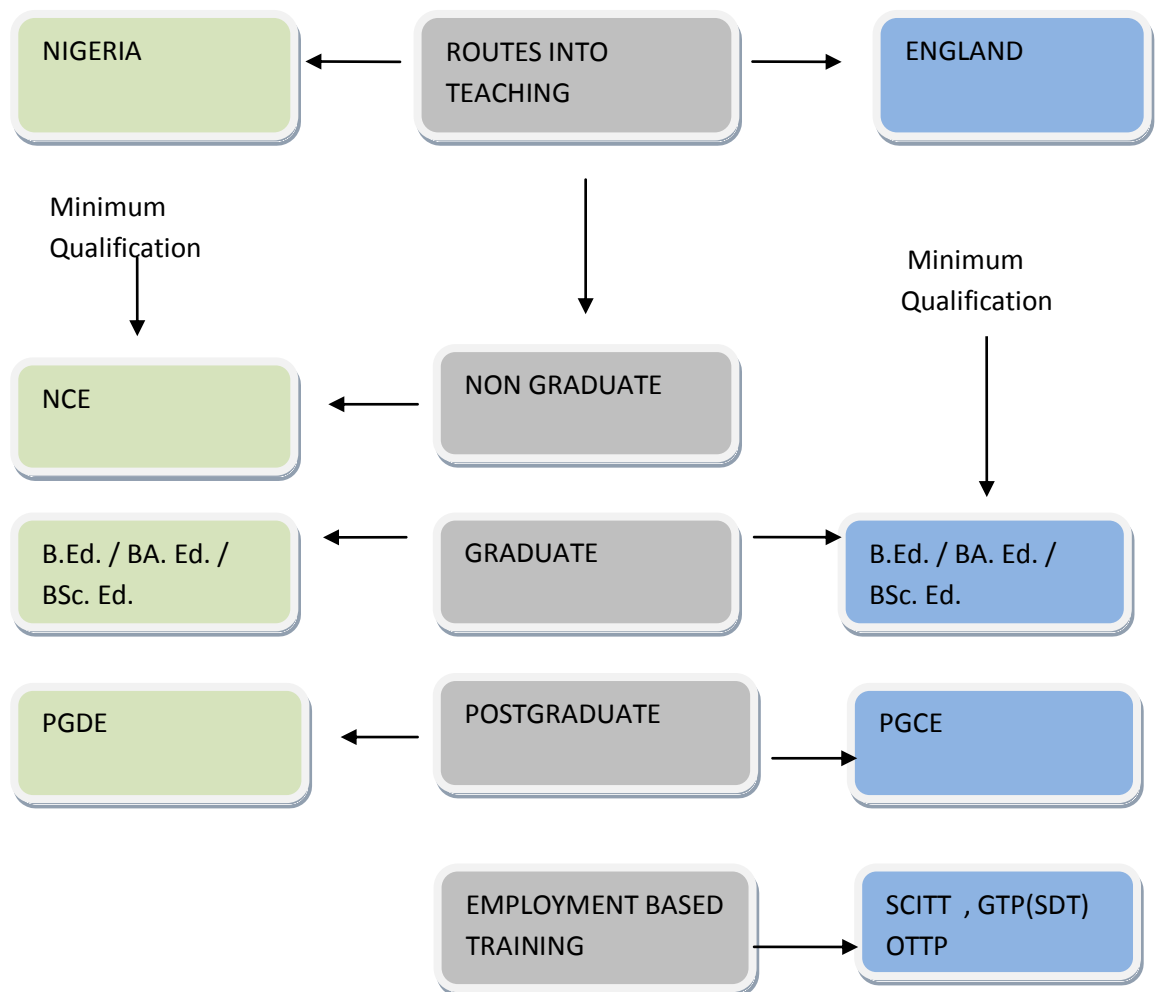
4.3 CURRENT STATUS OF TEACHER TRAINING IN BOTH COUNTRIES

From a Structural-Functionalist's approach, each country has its own system of training, with interrelated structures serving similar functions which meet society's needs. The function of teacher training system is to ensure that teachers are well trained in the relevant skills and knowledge to enable them to function effectively in the society which is a key function of education according to the functionalist. Primary teachers in both countries are expected to demonstrate sound knowledge of all subjects in the curriculum, unlike in secondary where teachers specialise in one or two subjects from the national curriculum. This may reflect in the depth, scope and focus of training although the routes are still the same except in Nigeria where the non-graduate route applies to primary education only.

Both countries have similar institutions responsible for teacher training which include; Universities, Colleges and Institutes of Education. There are also different routes into teaching which share some similarities although with disparities in certain areas for example content and depth of training, nomenclature and flexibility in training routes.

Currently in England, all teachers are expected to complete an approved ITT (Initial Teacher Training) course that leads to the award of QTS (Qualified Teachers Status), which is a basic requirement for teaching in a state maintained school. To achieve QTS, prospective candidates are expected to pass skills tests in Numeracy and Literacy (as ICT was cancelled from April 2012) which are conducted in different centres throughout England. The Teacher Agency is responsible for ITT and for awarding QTS to successful candidates. The main requirement to teach in a school in Nigeria is to obtain a teaching qualification through any of the recognised routes; without having to undergo any additional teacher tests to obtain a teaching status. The recognised routes into teaching primary education in both countries can be categorised into non-graduate, graduate or postgraduate route as indicated in Figures 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Routes into Teaching in Nigeria and England



i) Non graduate route

This route is only available in Nigeria as it is the minimum qualification into teaching in Primary education. This was affirmed by the National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004) which states that

The minimum qualification for entry into the teaching profession at any level in the Nigerian schools system should be the National Certificate in Education.

This is a three years training program after which teachers can teach in primary schools or proceed to a B. Ed degree programme at a University if they wish to upgrade (Isyaku, 2005; Ibe-Bassey, 1991). During the training students also undergo three months school placement to gain practical teaching experience and are assessed by supervisors.

ii) Graduate Route

This is a four year graduate degree programme with academic and professional training in a University available in both countries, where students specialise in a particular subject area which confers a B.Ed. or BA/ BSC Ed degree. This is the minimum qualification required by teachers to teach in England and graduates of education receive QTS along with their degrees. It also includes several weeks of school placement to gain teaching experience which is applicable in both countries though may vary in terms of duration in the schools.

iii) Post graduate route

A post graduate training is available in Nigeria and England and it offers an opportunity for graduates who have decided to go into teaching after obtaining a first degree in a particular subject area. Postgraduate teaching programmes are available in Universities in both countries and in some Colleges and Institutes of Education in Nigeria. Although both countries offer postgraduate routes into teaching, they differ in nomenclature and depth of training. In England it is known as PGCE (Postgraduate Certificate in Education), and in Nigeria as Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE). The postgraduate programmes focus mainly on developing teaching skills and includes placement in a primary or secondary school for a several months depending on practice in each country. In England, PGCE usually last for one year full time, or two years part time and trainee teachers spend most of their time in placement schools under supervision. PGCE is more practical based and teachers tend to have more experience in schools than the PGDE programme in Nigeria. There are more flexible opportunities of training at the postgraduate level in England unlike the Nigerian system.

iv) Employment Based Initial Teacher Training (EBITT)

This is another route for graduates in England which includes SCITT (School Centred Initial Teacher Training); GTP (Graduate Teacher Program). This shall be replaced with the School Direct Training (SDT) programme as from 2013, and the Teach First Initiative, which is an independent charity, recently proposed by the schools White paper 2010. PGCE can also be obtained through the SCITT programme for graduates who want to train within a school environment. The

GTP is an employment based type of training for graduates who while they work in a school and earn a salary. Following the closure of the GTP in 2012, the SDT will be open to graduates with at least 3 years career experience. OTTP is an employment based teaching route meant for teachers who qualified overseas and outside the EU (European Union). They are allowed to work temporarily as unqualified teachers in a school until they are eligible to achieve QTS.

4.4 WHAT IS CPD?

Continuing Professional Development (CPD) has become an area of growing interest internationally and there is an increasing body of research focused on various aspects of teachers' professional development (Avalos, 2011; Kennedy, 2005). One of the hallmarks of being identified as a professional is a commitment towards self-improvement or development throughout ones career (Bubb and Earley, 2007). Having established that teachers are professionals, it is expected that they engage in various forms of professional development activities to improve their skills and knowledge and remain competent in their practice. CPD has become a widely used phrase for on-going education and it builds upon initial training of professionals. Various terminologies and interpretations are being used in different contexts to describe CPD, for example; capacity building, staff development, professional learning, continuing education and In-service training. However, CPD encompasses all formal and informal learning that enables individuals to improve their own practice (Bubb and Early, 2007). A number of definitions of CPD emerge from the literature; Bolam (1993, p.3) defines CPD as;

Any professional development activities engaged in by teacher which enhance their knowledge and skills and enable them to consider their attitudes and approaches to education of children, with a view to improve the quality of teaching and learning process.

Bolam (1993), suggests that CPD should focus on professional training (short courses, workshops), professional education (long courses), and professional support (mentoring and coaching) which is broader than in-service training. This is perhaps slightly different from other perceptions of in-service training or staff

development which is an extension of teachers' personal education to develop their competence and improve their understanding. Day (1999, p.4) states that;

CPD consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual group or school and which contribute to the quality of the education in the classroom.

It is the process by which teachers review, renew and extend their commitments as change agents, to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and planning and practice with children, young people, and colleagues through each phase of their teaching. According to Day (1999), CPD can be formal or informal, including every form of learning experience, involving either individual or group reflection, but should focus on improving classroom practice and professional skills, pupil performance and school effectiveness. Bubb and Earley (2007,p.4) argue that CPD should achieve a balance between individual group, school and national needs; encourage a commitment to professional and personal growth and increase resilience self-confidence and job satisfaction. They suggest that CPD should improve ways of working to enhance pupil learning and a wide range of activities and not just acquisition of knowledge or skills which should relate to teachers job satisfaction.

CPD can also be described as reflective activities that increase the skills, knowledge and understanding of teachers and their effectiveness in schools which promotes continuous reflection and re-examination of professional learning.

The salient features of CPD emerging from the definitions above are; firstly, that it relates to the development of individuals, groups and the workplace or institution; it then focuses on enhancing professionalism, skills, knowledge and understanding and finally, it is reflective and continues throughout ones professional career and working experience. In a school context CPD is linked to teachers' professional development, quality, and also school effectiveness.

Based on the above fundamental attributes, in this context CPD is defined as; any activity or programme that enhances teachers' attitudes, knowledge, skills and understanding, which improves their professional relevance and effectiveness in impacting on pupils' learning and achievement and increases their job satisfaction.

4.4.1 Relevance of teacher CPD

The relevance of CPD in teaching highlights its functionality in professionalization and in contributing to the needs of not just teachers but students and schools. An exclusive concern for teachers CPD is to equip them and ensure that the beneficiaries are provided with the best possible service. The beneficiaries in this case are pupils, parents, school and society. This emphasises the functionalist's perspective of education which focuses on maintaining equilibrium by meeting the needs of society. It also highlights the altruistic attribute of the teaching profession which is towards service to the community.

i) The primary relevance of CPD is to the teacher. Arguably, pre-service training, no matter how good, cannot be expected to prepare teachers for all the challenges they face throughout their career. Teachers learn naturally from experience, over the length of their career, however, opportunities for further development is essential to enhance their professional growth (Day, 1999). A key priority of CPD is to enhance professionalism in teaching. Professional development in teaching enhances teachers' professional status, and makes them feel like part of a growing profession that incorporates new knowledge into its practice (Guga, 2006; DfES, 2005; Avalos, 2000). Teachers' participation in CPD should enable them act collegially in order to maintain and improve the standards of their profession (Mulkeen, 2007). Erskine (1988), argues that teachers should be able to identify their own professional development needs by a process of self-evaluation to enable them to improve their professional practice.

CPD is aimed at meeting the professional needs of teachers, enhance their career prospects and support them in preparing for future challenges. Engaging in CPD will help to equip teachers with relevant skills for instructional delivery, update their knowledge and expose them to new methods and materials to meet the dictate of modern realities of the job (Bubb and Earley, 2007; Garuba, 2007; Avalos, 2000). This entails building on new pedagogical theories and practices to help teachers develop expertise in their field (Dadds, 2001; Schifter et al, 1999). Studies have shown that active participation in CPD activities will help in improving the quality of the teacher (Hardman et al, 2011; Barber and Moourshed, 2007; Solomon, 2007, Jatto, 2005; Day, 1999). Education systems seek to provide teachers with opportunities for in-service professional

development in order to maintain a high standard of teaching (OECD, 2009). Swann et al (2010), argue that access to CPD is an important vehicle for challenging and supporting teachers in reflection, in generating and extending a body of professional knowledge.

i) CPD activities develop teachers as reflective practitioners as it is a lifelong learning process (Brown et al, 2001; Day, 1999; Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992). This requires conscious efforts of learning from experience and reflective thinking which is a form of growth and development. Avalos (2000) suggests that the continuum of teacher education should help them collaborate amongst themselves, think about their teaching and reflect on the learning process and sociocultural demands of their job. Hence as teachers constantly reflect on their practice, they develop and improve as professionals. CPD improves retention and recruitment as the word gets around about where teachers are well looked after and they have opportunities for professional development, which serves as a form of motivation for teachers.

ii) A key objective of CPD is to improve pupil performance and learning outcomes. Professional development programs tend to focus on bringing about change in classroom practices, teachers attitudes and beliefs, and also on the pupil's achievement. Successful CPD should have significant positive effect on student's performance and learning apart from developing the pedagogical skills of the teacher (Day, 1999). Pupils' achievement and improvement in learning are important determinants of the impact or effectiveness of teachers CPD. As emphasised by the former TDA in England, teachers are expected to have responsibility to be engaged in effective sustained, and relevant professional development throughout their careers to strengthen the professional career structure and improve pupil achievement. Brown et al (2001), suggest that in-service training experience of teachers has a significant impact on student achievement. It is important to note, however, that this is only effective if the teachers' professional development is channelled towards students' needs. Therefore, planning of CPD should incorporate needs of the teacher, student and school.

iii) Another relevance of CPD is to the school. As teachers are considered as an asset to their schools; their professional development is imperative in determining the standard and quality of schools. According to Day (1999), successful schools are perceived as those which recognise that building effective teacher-teacher, and teacher-student connections can only be enacted if teachers themselves are routinely engaged in continuous learning. There can only be a substantial improvement in the quality of education in schools if the quality of the teachers is high. Most state and national educational reforms in many countries around the world today lay emphasis in improving the quality of the teacher and enhancing professionalism to raise the standard of achievement in schools (FME, 2011; DfE, 2010). Studies indicate that school reform and policies have also adopted the culture of CPD for their staff as this is seen as the core of school improvement (OECD, 2009; Barber and Moourshed, 2007; Brown et al, 2001). Professional development promotes the school as a learning community where teaching takes place not only for the pupils but also for the teachers (Day, 1999). It is important that a culture of lifelong learning and commitment to developing all staff is fostered by school leaders who create a culture of CPD for all staff as this is seen as the core of school improvement (Avalos, 2000).

4.5 TYPES OF CPD ACTIVITIES

A number of studies have examined different types of CPD activities that are undertaken by teachers to enhance their professional development (Avalos, 2011; Garuba, 2007; Kennedy, 2005). Different types of CPD tend to incorporate a combination of dialogues, conversations and interactions concepts (Avalos, 2011). CPD activities can be structured and organised in different ways for different reasons and in different contexts. Eurat (1994) argues that the context through which professional development is acquired is important and helps one to understand the nature of the knowledge being acquired. Contexts considered in this study include; the school based (e.g. workshops, seminars, mentoring, research and collaborative activities), academic institution (higher education courses or programmes) and other sources outside school (workshops, conferences) (see Figure 4.2). Within the different contexts, CPD activities can be award bearing which are often long programs leading to an award by an institution or non-award bearing, often activities organised within or outside the

school to improve and develop teachers' knowledge and skills (Garuba,2007). The types of CPD activities considered in this study include;

Workshops – these are non-award bearing interactive practical activities in small or large groups where participants are involved in the learning process. Workshops are coordinated by resource persons from within or outside the school and are aimed at refreshing teachers' knowledge, skills and innovations in teaching (Garuba, 2007; Villegas–Remiers, 2003). They are often interactive and participatory

Mentoring involves a more experienced or veteran teacher, acting as a professional guide or mentor to a younger or new teacher (mentee/ protégé) and it is often school based (Bolam, 1993). According to Bush and Middlewood (2005), mentoring produces significant benefits for mentees, mentors and the school system. For the mentees it enables them to gain confidence and learn about their new role, whereas for the mentors it encourages reflection and learning partnership and for the school, it ensures a culture of collegiality. Garuba (2007) asserts that through mentoring knowledge is shared between mentee and, mentor which promotes effectiveness in teaching and learning.

Collaborative activities involve promoting interaction amongst teachers and other related professionals for the purpose of professional development which yields positive outcomes. Examples include; school partnerships, teacher to teacher collaboration, and coaching, joint preparation of materials, lesson planning and team building. In England this is recognised as an important type of professional development in schools. One of the former TDA's priorities for professional development was to increase coherence and collaboration among schools. School partnerships can facilitate sharing of innovative practice and provision of professional support within a self-sustaining system, which would lead to development of more strategic approaches to professional development planning and opportunities. Collaboration between teachers is necessary if they are able to tackle issues in the context of their working life in school and become more fully engaged in working on pupil learning and participation (Davis and Howes, 2007; Avalos; 2000). Cordingley et al (2003) noted that collaborative CPD contributed to the development of teachers' knowledge, understanding and practice. Their

study showed that teachers adopt a wider range of learning activities in class, encouraging more active learning, and developing co-operative learning strategies between students.

Action Research is a process of investigation, reflection and action which deliberately aims to improve or make an impact on the quality of the real situation which forms the focus of the investigation. It involves critical awareness and contributes to the existing knowledge of the educational community and it leads to deliberate and planned actions to improve conditions of teaching and learning (Villegas–Remiers, 2003). Action research is gaining acceptance in classrooms in many developed countries, and is now perceived as a model for teacher professional development (Cordingley et al, 2003; Parke, 1997; Elliot, 1993). Teachers who are involved in research are concerned with ways to improve practice by investigating their own worlds, and understanding their practices within the larger society which leads to improvement of teaching and learning (Villegas-Remiers, 2003; Hollingsworth, 1997; Elliot, 1993).

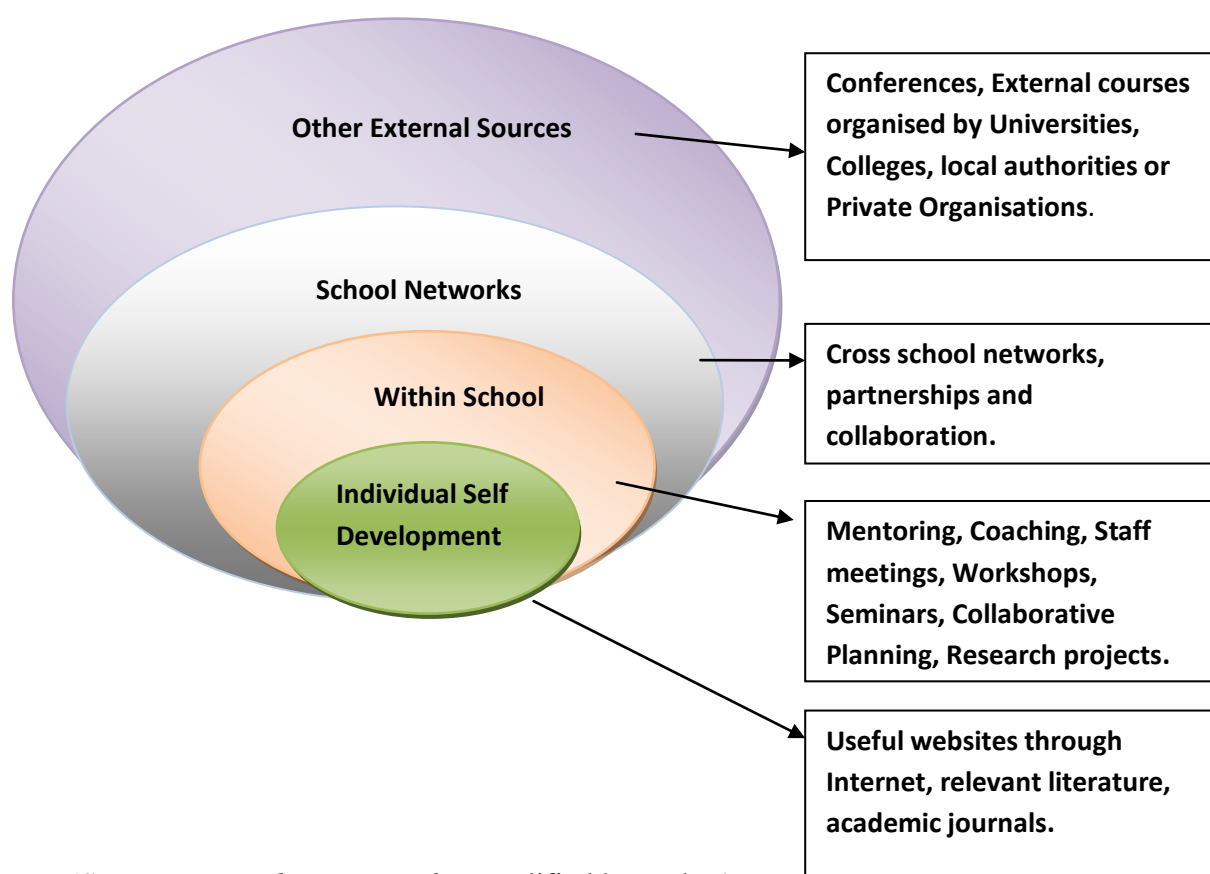
Conferences are forums for presenting research findings and exchanging ideas and debating issues amongst academics and practitioners. They are mostly organised externally in a different venue from the school. It involves a discussion of works of researchers which provide a channel for discussion. They are a means of disseminating and generating ideas and developments which will enhance professional practice and for networking (Goodall et al, 2005; Garuba 2002).

Higher education courses/programs- An important form of CPD which requires development of skills and knowledge in a higher education institution. This could be graduate or postgraduate programmes during the process of upgrading or often award bearing. It may also include opportunities for assuming other forms of managerial pastoral or leadership roles for career development and pursuit of diverse professional roles (Bolam, 1993). Examples include; PGDE, MTL (Masters in Teaching and Learning) in England, CPD leadership training, mentors training or career trajectory into management positions i.e; NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) for aspiring headteachers .

The sources of the above CPD activities include; within school, external sources and school networks as indicated in Figure 4.3. Individual self-development is

also considered as a source of professional development especially due to the influence of ICT in society.

Figure 4.3: Sources of CPD activities



(Source: www.tda.org.gov.uk - modified by author)

4.5.1 Various Perceptions of CPD

Having examined different types of CPD, O’Sullivan et al (1988) suggests three ways in which CPD may be perceived in society. From a political point of view, CPD may be perceived as a professional duty or obligation where knowledge is for practice to meet required expectation or qualification (Cochran-Smith and Lythle, 2001). An example is what happens in countries where teachers have a

requirement to gain masters qualification within a few years into the profession (for example USA, Canada and Finland). This is referred to as knowledge for practice.

Secondly, the professional element builds on the concept of the reflective practitioner, where teachers take responsibility for their professional learning (Helsby, 1995). Teachers are conceived as reflective practitioners who enter a profession with a certain knowledge base and who will require new knowledge and experiences on their basic knowledge. Cochran-smith and Lythle (2001) describe this form of CPD when teachers reflect on their practice, as knowledge of practice i.e. using enquiry based on reflective practice (for example action research). This constitutes professional development since it aids teachers in building new pedagogical theories and practices and develops their expertise in the field (Dadds, 2001). Clarke (1995) argues that a practitioner is reflective when he or she is curious about some aspects of the practice, frames and reframes that aspect in the light of previous experience or past knowledge and then develops a plan for future action.

Thirdly, the pragmatic element considers the knowledge and understanding of CPD in practice. Cochran-Smith and Lythle (2001) refer to this as knowledge in practice where practical knowledge is embedded in practice. It involves practical and 'learning on the job' experience. The professional and pragmatic elements of CPD appear to be more common and effective with regards to teacher's professional development (Avalos, 2011; O'Brien and Jones 2005; O'Sullivan et al, 1988). All forms of CPD considered in this study reflect the pragmatic, political and professional views outlined above.

4.6 TEACHER CPD IN NIGERIA AND ENGLAND

In Nigeria, CPD started gaining popularity in recent years and has led to the introduction of Mandatory Continuing Professional Development (MCPD), for registered teachers in 2006. The aim of MCPD is to oversee, promote and enhance teachers' professional development in schools by providing a forum for keeping them abreast of new innovations in theory and practice and to serve as an on-going process to enhance teachers' commitment to the profession. Since its inception the council is claims to have engaged in training teachers across the

federation (TRCN, 2008). Various Institutional structures that have statutory responsibilities for continuing education and professional development of teachers include; Universities, Colleges of Education, NTI (National Teachers Institute), TRCN and UBEC (Universal Basic Education Commission). Different strategies have been adopted in enhancing CPD in Nigeria.

A Teacher Quality Task Team (TQTT) was set up by the Federal Government in 2007 to investigate teacher quality. It identified CPD as one of the key elements of teacher quality and effectiveness and pointed to the dearth of training opportunities for teachers. A situation analysis of established that there are no structured on-going programs to update content knowledge or curriculum improvements.

A National Framework for the CPD of teachers at all levels of education was introduced in 2007 particularly at primary and secondary levels (Junaid, 2009). The framework identifies the objectives of CPD for teachers in primary and secondary schools are to; update teacher's knowledge of subject matter and pedagogical skills; improve the quality of teaching; and learning to promote professional status; and provide a network of learning opportunities for teachers to share best practices. The main components of CPD according to the National framework, include school based teacher support systems, cluster based teacher networks; and in-service training programs. It will involve the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) in collaboration with training institutions and private school proprietors. Impressive as the framework may appear to be, implementation has been quite slow and not fully articulated and funding limited.

CPD has received a high profile in England and various initiatives have been put in place by Governments to promote it for teachers. The Training Agency is responsible for overseeing the CPD strategy, practices and effectiveness in schools. A CPD strategy (DfEE 2001b) introduced by New Labour was designed to ensure that teachers are given more opportunities for relevant, focused, and effective professional development. The strategy proposed a number of initiatives which aimed to provide teachers with more opportunities for access to and ownership of their own professional development. The strategy encouraged a partnership approach involving LEAs, schools teachers and other relevant

organisations. LEAs provide support for teachers CPD through provision of courses, encouraging and facilitating networks and supporting groups and supplying information about opportunities for professional development (DfEE 2001b). Brown et al (2001) examined the role of the LEA in supporting schools to provide CPD and identify innovative practices that might be adopted by schools and LEAs for further improvements and providing CPD that meets national priorities and also for use in schools development plans to inform their educational plan.

The strategy states that good professional development enables teachers to build upon their skills and keep up to date with the changing demands that are placed upon them. It also recognises that a professional development culture within schools creates a more supportive and encouraging environment. It aims to provide more opportunities for teachers to share good practice in professional development in other schools, and to learn from colleagues' expertise and experience. Part of the strategy includes;

- Providing teachers with up-to date information and resources including case studies of good practice, and professional development opportunities through a CPD database (this was closed down in March 2012 as part of the coalition government education reforms and cut backs).
- A code of practice entitled 'Good value CPD' set out what schools and teachers can expect from CPD providers.
- Appointment of more advanced skills teachers which will enable career progression for outstanding teachers.

Brown et al (2001), claim that principal drivers for CPD activities have been on school development needs and national priorities which had taken precedence over individual needs. Their findings suggest that the majority of teachers across England felt that too many training days were driven by national agenda and schools needs and that more prioritisation should be accorded to individual professional growth (Brown et al, 2001).

Building on the DfEE (2001), a three year CPD strategies was introduced in 2006 and then 2009. These strategies were focused on professional development of

teachers in schools in order to improve their skills and teaching practice and ensure maximum impact on the outcomes for children and young people. It involved a coherent approach of working with partner agencies with an interest in teachers professional development given that the quality of teaching and learning remains central to the standard of education in schools. The strategy reflects knowledge of professional development practices across the sector, relevant research findings and identifies three priorities that will underpin CPD.

CPD has continued to receive much attention and priority with the Schools White Paper DfE (2010) which emphasises that teachers should receive effective professional development throughout their career with opportunities to work collaboratively with other teachers. Pedder and Opfer (2011), argue that governments establish a policy context that facilitates and enables teachers to learn in ways that are conducive to the effective practices in support of their students learning. They contend that in England;

The planning and organisation of CPD is hampered by a lack of strategic planning that reflects and reinforces difficulties schools have in balancing successfully between national policy, school and individual development priorities and ensuring that CPD provision effectively caters to different types of need (Pedder and Opfer ,2011, p.754).

Pedder and Opfer, argue that CPD in schools in England is poorly planned and evaluated and not well articulated. They suggest that ways of identifying teacher needs and demand for CPD that do not rely on informal perceptions of need should be explored.

Masters in Teaching and Learning (MTL), a labour government initiative (funded by the former TDA) was introduced in 2009 as a professional qualification for practicing teachers with the aim to improve teacher quality raise standards in schools. It was designed to be an in-depth classroom based professional development program which clearly indicates an overhaul of in-service teacher professional development (Burton and Goodman, 2011). The MTL was partly influenced by the emergence of the new professionalism (see chapter three), and designed to further improve the quality of education so that schools will be equipped to deal with the changing needs of the 21st century. The objective was to

make teaching become a master's level profession and increase the appeal of a career in teaching to high quality graduates which will in turn raise the profile and status of teachers (Burton and Goodman, 2011). Wilkins (2011) suggests that significant changes in the educational landscape particularly MTL, would impact upon teacher professionalism. Further to Wilkin's investigation, Totterdell et al, (2011) see teacher professional learning within the policy context of the MTL. They address some issues raised by Wilkins, (2011) relating to MTL development, and suggest that the programme if successful would validate the concept of an all master's profession. MTL courses have, however faced challenges of funding by the TDA, due to severe austerity and are closing down in the current coalition government (Burton and Goodman, 2011).

The level of prominence, scope and advancement of CPD in England is much higher than in Nigeria, and considerable into teacher professional development are on-going as demonstrated in this chapter. Nevertheless, criticisms regarding, planning, evaluation and CPD support strategies have been raised and questions about that there are various areas that need to be explored and lessons to be learnt from investigating and comparing the practice and policies in both countries.

4.7 EVALUATION OF CPD ACTIVITIES

One of the themes being investigated in this study is the approach and methods undertaken by different schools in evaluating the impact CPD activities. As we live in an era of accountability, it is imperative that the impact of CPD on teachers' professional development and pupil achievement is evaluated. Not much attention has been paid to evaluation in the past; however, recent studies show more emphasis on evaluation of CPD although there is no agreement on how to measure the effectiveness of CPD programs (Guskey, 2006; Goodall et al, 2005; Guskey, 2002).

There are three major types of evaluation which include pre-formative, formative and summative evaluation. Pre-formative evaluation sometimes referred to as planning, takes place before a programme or activity begins. It involves appraisals, previously established standards, like specified goals and the plan to achieve the goals. Formative evaluation occurs during the operation of a program

or activity and its focus is to provide those responsible for the programme with on-going information about whether things are going as planned. The third type, summative evaluation, is conducted on the completion of a program or activity to provide the program developers and decision makers with judgements about the overall worth of the program. The three forms of evaluation involve the collection and analysis of information, before, during and after the program (Guskey, 2000).

Guskey (2000) argues that many of these evaluation programs are not very effective because they do not take into account what motivates teachers to engage in professional development and the process by which change in teachers typically occurs. In addition to this, Guskey claims that educators frequently regard professional development as having little impact on day to day practice while some others consider it a waste of time. According to his study, teachers stated that their participation in CPD activities was based on contractual obligations often seen as compulsory. A solution to this issue was proper evaluation (Guskey, 2000).

Good evaluations are the product of thoughtful planning, the ability to ask questions and a basic understanding about how to find valid answers. In many ways they are simply the refinement of everyday thinking (Guskey and Sparks 1991, p.4).

A good CPD evaluation is one which considers the outcome and produces feedback which can make an impact. Good evaluations provide information that is sound, meaningful, and sufficiently reliable to use in making thoughtful responsible decisions about professional development (Gooodall et al, 2005). It is specific regarding what is being evaluated and it provides feedback on effective planning and review systems. It is important to understand the intended outcome to enable proper evaluation. Well evaluated CPD encourages participation and helps to determine the effectiveness or impact. Although it may be difficult to determine improvements that are attributed to CPD, evaluation with feedback helps improve planning for future programs (Brown et al, 2001).

Guskey's model for evaluating professional development was influenced by Kirkpatrick (1994), who developed a model for evaluating training programs in business and industry. Kirkpatrick's model focused on four levels of evaluation to determine the value and worth of training programs. Although Kirkpatrick's

model could be applied in evaluating professional development in education, it does not address the issue of organisational support and change which Guskey included as a new level. Guskey (2000) argues that organisational support was necessary to gain high quality implementation of new policies and practices. Each level provides different types of information that can be used for both summative and formative evaluations. The five levels include:

- Participants reactions- This focuses on teachers' satisfaction of the experience to help improve programme delivery and design
 - Participants learning –Examines new knowledge and skills gained by participants to improve content, format and organisation of the program.
- Organisational support and change-This focuses on the organisations advocacy, support, facilitation and recognition.
 - Participants' use of new knowledge and skills- To determine degree of quality of implementation and effective application of participants' new knowledge and skill.
- Student learning outcome- The impact on students cognitive (performance and achievement), affective (attitudes and disposition) and psychomotor (skills and behaviour). This is the overall impact of professional development on the organisation.

Each level provides different types of information that can be used either formatively (to find out what has been done well and where there is need for improvement) or summative (to judge the value and worth of the activity). Gathering information at the different levels can be through questionnaires, evaluation forms, participant portfolios, student records, direct observation and interviews. Goodall et al (2005), provided evidence about the impact and effectiveness of various approaches that are reliable and transferable across different contexts in schools in England. They found out that questionnaires and evaluation forms are the most commonly used amongst other methods. Muijs et al (2004), argue that evaluation needs to address purpose, location, impact of learning models used and outcomes which includes; benefits to school teacher and

pupil. They noted that evaluations did not necessarily indicate the effectiveness of the activities but rather summarised the participant's perception about the activity. To determine the impact of CPD it is important to be able to access how it affects teachers' performance and pupils' achievements and value added.

4.8 EFFECTIVENESS OF CPD

Effectiveness is a term widely used in various contexts and judgements can vary amongst different individuals. It is a measure of achievement of purpose, outcome or impact and often refers to an ability to achieve a designated purpose. Effective CPD is determined if there is an impact or improvement in quality of teaching and learning and CPD aims and objective. Measurement of effectiveness is variable as individuals may have different interpretations of what effectiveness means. Sammons et al (1997), suggest three key questions should guide measurement of effectiveness in any system;

- Effective for whom? This addresses the question of who is considered as the focus of the action, students, teachers or school
- Effective for what kind of outcome? This refers to consistency It is important to define what the expected outcomes are to enable one to determine the effectiveness of the programme.
- Effective over what time period? This indicates improvement and is only measured considering trends in performance.

Determining CPD effectiveness may not be easy as it depends on the type of activity, the specific CPD need and its focus. Certain types of activities may be easy to access after a short period of time, while others may take longer. It may be difficult to determine because what a teacher considers as effective may differ. According to guidelines set down by the former TDA, an effective CPD should have the following characteristics;

- It is provided by people with the necessary experience, expertise and skills.
- It is evidence based.

- It enables participation to develop skills knowledge and understanding which will be practical, relevant and applicable to their current role or career aspiration.
- It promotes continuous enquiry and problem solving embedded in the schools.
- Its impact on teaching and learning is evaluated and the evaluation guides subsequent professional development activities.
- It takes account of previous knowledge and practice. (TDA , 2006)

An effective CPD must be school based; sustainable; cost effective and affordable; and have a good monitoring and implementation system. School based CPD is the most realistic and allows for needs analysis of the teacher and learner to be incorporated into the programme since it is school specific (Garuba, 2007).

Garuba's perception of an effective CPD shows some parallel with and the TDA description of CPD effectiveness as they both emphasise practicability and applicability of CPD activities in schools. School based CPD emphasises teachers' input and has a participant driven approach to teacher development. Studies show the significance and relevance of evidence based CPD in schools (Goodall, 2005; Cordingley et al 2003; Brown et al, 2001; Ganser, 1999). Brown et al (2001) claims that effective CPD requires up to date content and must be relevant to classroom practice. According to Goodall et al's (2005), survey of teachers in England, INSET days, mentoring and collaborative activities are the most effective forms of CPD. Garuba (2007), suggests that proper evaluation and constant monitoring is important in determining effectiveness of CPD.

4.9 MOTIVATION TOWARDS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Availability of CPD opportunities is a necessary condition, however it is not sufficient as teachers' willingness and interest in participation is essential. Evans (1998) defines motivation as a condition that encompasses all those factors that determine the degree of inclination towards engagement in an activity. According to Bennell (2004), motivation to work refers to the psychological processes that influence individual behaviour with respect to the attainment of workplace goals

and task. He argues that environmental and organisational conditions may affect teachers' motivation and commitment to both work and towards participation in professional development activities. Commitment and interest are important points to consider in staff motivation.

It is widely asserted that low teacher motivation is reflected in low standards of professional conduct, especially in developing countries. Poor working conditions invariably affect their enthusiasm towards professional development (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Bennell, 2004). Research suggests that many low income African countries face a crisis of teacher motivation (Mkposakosa and Ndarahutse, 2008; Bennell, 2004; Johnson et al, 2000; Jessop and Penny, 1998).

A number of studies provide insights into what motivates teachers to participate in CPD. Brown et al (2001) suggest that ethos and a culture of professional development in schools are critical to encourage participation in CPD activities. A study of early career teachers in Scotland found that school cultures and management support are an important source of motivation towards CPD (Kennedy and McKay, 2011). Another survey of primary school teachers in Nigeria, identifies job content, job context and reward system especially in the public schools as key determinants of job satisfaction among teachers (Adelabu, 2005). This shows that an important motivator towards CPD is their working environment and context within which teacher's work, which reflects the school culture (Avalos, 2011). Hustler et al (2003), conducted another survey investigating the perceptions of teachers regarding their professional development, it assessed their previous knowledge current attitudes and future expectations. They suggest that most teachers prefer CPD that is relevant and applicable to classroom practice. Armour and Yelling (2004), also support Hustler and others in demonstrating that teachers' preference is for a practical, participatory, democratic and collaborative environment for professional development.

Garuba (2002), shows that staff promotion and career advancement in Nigeria, are motivating factors in participation in professional development. Bennell and Akyeampong's (2007) work on teacher motivation and incentives in sub-Saharan Africa and south Asia, suggests that salary increase and promotion are good

incentives to enhance teachers' interest in professional development. Studies in England (Kingston et al, 2003) and Israel (Nasser and Fresco, 2003) corroborates the above findings. This shows that teachers in different contexts tend to be motivated by similar factors.

Clearly, motivation is driven by a range of intrinsic rewards including personal fulfilment, achievement, recognition and a personal interest towards development but also by external rewards like job security, salary, and status and work conditions. This echoes Herzberg's (1968) two factor theory of motivation which states that; motivation factors help to keep individuals committed to the job whereas hygiene factors are needed to ensure that employees are not dissatisfied. Dissatisfaction results from absence of the hygiene factors which are externally driven; therefore job enrichment is needed for intrinsic motivation. A balanced mix of job satisfaction and hygiene factors can enhance teachers' motivation towards professional development.

4.10 BARRIERS TO TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Teachers' professional development cannot be ascertained without making reference to the contemporary issues, problems and prospects that affect teachers. Issues peculiar to primary teachers in each country are examined alongside specific issues relating to participation in-service CPD.

In Nigeria, research suggests that these issues range from pre service and in-service training which affect teacher quality and their professional development. Some of the issues include; entry requirements into teacher training programmes, wrong reasons for enrolling into teaching, inadequate funding, lack of resources and facilities that enhance teaching and learning, poor salaries, poor quality of training, drop in enrolment and high attrition rates. Entry requirements into teacher training programmes have a counter effect on the quality of teachers produced thereby lowering the standard of teacher that graduate from the teacher training colleges. Studies show that many NCE programmes draw their intakes from secondary school leavers who are below average academically, and are unable to gain admission into the University have a detrimental effect on the quality of teachers produced thereby lowering the standard of teacher that

graduate from the teacher training colleges (Akinbote, 2007; Garuba, 2007; Omoreghie, 2006; Dada, 2006).

Ajeyalemi (2005) argues that most individuals who go into teaching do so because they could not gain admission into the course of their choice. This concurs with other findings (Ejei, 2005; Umar, 2004). Teachers in Nigeria lack support regarding adequate resources and innovation in teaching like ICT, interactive white boards, modern teaching aids, overhead projectors, and internet facilities. A study in Akwa Ibom (an educational advantaged state), showed that over 90% of the teachers in the primary schools and 80% in the secondary schools had very little knowledge of ICT (Udofia, 2007). Iji (2007) emphasises that ICT skills are essential for the Nigerian teacher and for general socio economic advancement.

Inadequate funding has been a fundamental issue in teacher education which reflects in other areas including quality of training facilities, availability of resources, salaries (Oni, 2011; Adebayo, 2009; Ngada, 2001). This is attributable to low budgetary allocation to education, (Hinchcliff, 2002) poor management and lack of accountability especially in the state schools (Aluede 2009, Isyaku 2006, Ajelayemi 2005). The quality of training programmes has been a huge concern as studies indicate pertinent issues including; poor supervision and assessment and inconsistency in the depth of training in different parts of the country (Akinbote, 2007; Usman, 2006; Udofia, 2006; Anikweze, 1995). The strategic plan on Nigerian education affirms that the system and process of training and developing teachers is seriously deficient and very weak teachers are produced (FME, 2011).

A major limitation with regards to teachers CPD in most countries is funding (Pedder and Opfer, 2011; Goodall, et al, 2005). Funding may include cost of attendance or participation and travel costs. Although insufficient funding is common to both countries, the extent to which it affects teacher professional development may be different (Kennedy and McKay, 2011; Gray, 2005). Whilst Schools in England are often faced with issues relating to insufficient budgetary allocations to fund certain CPD activities, there is limited evidence of budgetary

allocations towards staff development, training and provision of key resources in Nigerian schools.

Studies show that teachers' salaries are amongst the lowest compared to other professionals which is similar in other Sub-Saharan African countries and also developed countries although at a better scale (Avalos, 2010; Aluede, 2009; Evans, 2008; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007). The past two decades have witnessed a considerable decline in enrolment in teacher training institutions despite the acute demand for teachers (Ejei, 2005). Studies suggest that young people prefer to go for other professions rather than teaching because of the reputation, status and unfavourable working conditions in schools especially the public system (Adelabu, 2005). This has led to high rates of teacher attrition in state and private schools (Ajelayemi, 2005; Ogbiegbaen, 2005). These factors collectively serve as an impediment to teachers' professional development in Nigeria.

Some key issues which are peculiar to English teachers as evidenced from studies include; Teacher shortage, workload, time funding, accessibility awareness and frequent changes in government policies. Teacher shortages are a problem in many areas in England and the problem of workload emerges as a de-motivator to most teachers. Research indicates that about 30-40% of newly qualified teachers leave the profession within five years, for many reasons including; salary, workload and lack of administrative support (Smithers and Robinson, 2005; Ingersoll and Smith 2003). Studies show that trainee teachers in England sometimes find it daunting adapting to the changes and uniqueness of different schools which may affect their morale and enthusiasm (Browne and Haylock, 2004). This however depends on the type, location local circumstances, demography multicultural diversity, and history of the school.

Incessant changes in government policies (see chapter two) have been an issue with many teachers in England. This has led to lack of creativity and innovation in teaching, as well as an increase in teachers' workload which may be attributed to loss of job satisfaction and early retirement (Browne, 2006; Evans, 1998, Brighouse and Moon, 1990; Ball, 1990). Trofman and Jeffery (2008), argue that the intensification of performativity in the English primary schools with

proliferation of government policies and reforms constitutes a threat to the professional cultures in primary schools.

Some of the issues identified directly affect teachers' participation in CPD activities for example time, workload, awareness, accessibility and funding. Teachers are often constrained with time to attend and evaluate the impact of CPD activities (Kennedy and McKay, 2011; Goodall et al, 2005; Gray, 2005; Robinson and Sebba, 2005). Time is often required for participation, implementation and consolidation on new initiatives. Workload of teachers is a common barrier to their participation in CPD activities as evidenced from studies (OECD, 2009; Hustler et al, 2003).

Another limitation with teachers in schools is lack of access or awareness to a range of opportunities (Pedder and Opfer, 2011; Kennedy and McKay, 2011), claim that teachers at their early career stage in England have fewer ranges of available opportunities for professional development. Stoll et al (2003), suggest that teachers in rural areas are disadvantaged by lack of access to higher education institutions. This is affirmed by studies in developing countries where there is a major distinction in the category of schools and teachers as explained in chapter two (Thompson, 2012; Avalos 2011; Bennel and Akyeampong 2007; Tooley et al 2005, Johnson et al 2000). Arranging cover to be released from class commitments in order to participate in CPD activities was another issue highlighted by Gray (2005). Pedder and Opfer (2011), also found out that working conditions, school culture and lack of support from management also affect teachers' participation in CPD. The distinctiveness and peculiarity of challenges faced by the teaching profession in both countries are driven by contextual, structural, socio-economic and political factors.

4.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of teacher training and CPD in England and Nigeria. It has shown a parallel in the developmental antecedents in the teaching profession from its emergence to the current training status, and highlighted the similarities and differences between the two countries. This chapter demonstrates the functionalists' perspective of how structures exist in

different contexts; however perform the functions of training and development of teachers to improve their quality and consequently the standard of education. It described the meaning of CPD and explains its relevance in the teaching profession. It examines key themes that underpin the research questions stated in chapter one with supporting evidence from literature. This includes different types of CPD activities, CPD evaluation and effectiveness, and constraints and motivators towards teachers' professional development.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters have provided a comprehensive review of literature that examines the concept of teaching as a profession, developments in teacher professionalism and key aspects of CPD in both countries. This chapter explains and justifies the research methods used in this study. It begins with an introduction of the significance of research methodology and design. It describes the methodological framework and instruments which have been used for data collection, and explains the rationale behind the selection of the research methods. It gives an account of the pilot study, sampling method adopted, and field work carried out in both countries and points out limitations encountered while undertaking the empirical research. Ethical considerations, validity and reliability are also highlighted in the chapter. The last section outlines the conceptual framework adopted for data analysis and explains the process involved in analysing the data considering the precautions taken in managing the data.

5.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

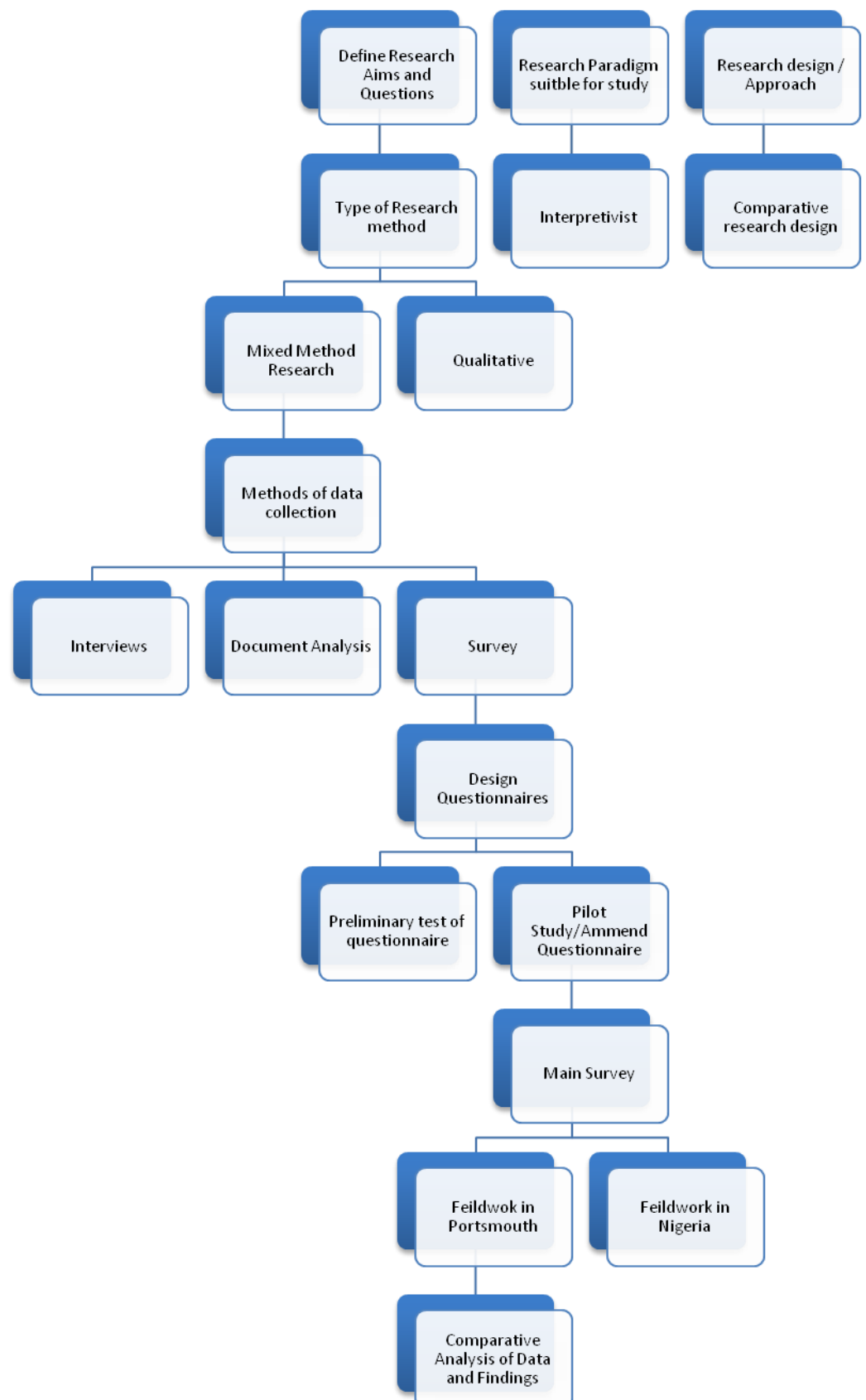
An understanding of methodology is essential in assessing the value and quality of a piece of research (Wellington, 1996). Methodology is simply a model employed by a researcher in carrying out a particular research project (Sarantakos, 1993). The content, structure and process of a research method are usually dictated by the methodology. It entails theoretical principles as well as a framework that provides guidelines about how research is done in the context of a particular paradigm (Cook and Fonow, 1991). This includes basic knowledge related to the research subject and research method in question and the framework employed in the particular context. In a nutshell research methodology can be perceived as the process involved in investigating and formulating research data and outcomes.

A research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Bryman 2008, p.31). The type of research design is determined by the aim, rationale and type of data that will be collected. Just like an architect depends on a model to be able to produce a good structure, a good design is required to ensure

reliability and validity of the research (Bryman, 2008). There are different types of research designs in social research; longitudinal design, case study design, cross sectional or survey design, comparative designs and quasi-experiments (Robson, 2002; Cohen et al, 2007). Comparative designs involve two or more groups of participants with the main focus being analysing the similarities and differences between the groups.

Given that the research focuses on investigating and comparing teacher profiles and CPD in primary schools in both countries, the research design involves a descriptive, comparative, analytical framework which addresses the research questions and produces insight into the practice of both countries. I have adopted a qualitative approach using mixed methods of data collection which include interviews, questionnaires and document analysis. By integrating both qualitative and quantitative methods, I draw out empirical evidence from teachers and headteachers regarding CPD in different schools. Figure 5.1 shows a flow chart which gives an overview of the research methodology I adopted for this study. It shows how the qualitative approach and interpretive paradigm links to the process of data collection using mixed methods consisting of interviews , questionnaires and documents, the pilot study and how the fieldwork was carried out.

Figure 5.1: Flow Chart Showing Research Design and Methodology



5.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM

All research is based on some underlying philosophical assumptions about what constitutes ‘valid’ research and which methods are appropriate for the development of knowledge in a given study. Research paradigms refer to the world views or belief systems that guide researchers and which influences the way in which knowledge is generated, studied and interpreted (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998; Patton, 1990). The choice of paradigm is very important as it sets down the intent, and provides a theoretical framework for the methodologies employed in research (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). A paradigm can either be positivist, constructivist, interpretive, transformative or pragmatic as illustrated in Table 5.1. This study is however situated in the interpretive paradigm.

The interpretive approach is subjective and assumes that there is no objective reality but that it is relative and socially constructed. It emphasises multiple measures and observations and seeks to understand individual perceptions and views in order to advance knowledge of the phenomena of the world and in an attempt to get shared meanings with others (Bassey 1999, p.44). The interpretive stance adopted for this study is based on an approach that draws from various participants’ perceptions, experiences, feelings and opinions regarding CPD. It involves the use of primary data obtained from interviews, questionnaires, and secondary literature and documents to elicit the required information. Asking questions provides a better understanding of the research focus and is interactive and reflective and bases descriptions of human actions on social meanings. Knowledge about the research subject will be informed by the descriptions and interpretations of the participants’ views and responses to the questions.

To ensure trustworthiness of the research, appropriate mixed methods of data collection were employed to enable triangulation and thus heighten reliability. The interpretive paradigm is underpinned by interpretation which involves making meaning of the information and drawing inferences. The focus in this study is to explain the subjective reasons and meanings of findings from the data collected which are expressed within specific social contexts.

Table 5.1: Relationship between Paradigms, Methods and Instruments

Paradigm	Research method	Data collection Instrument
Positivist	Quantitative methods are more predominant	Experiments Quasi-experiments Tests ,Scales
Interpretivist / Constructivist	Qualitative methods are more predominant	Interview Observations Questionnaires Document Reviews
Transformative	Qualitative, Quantitative with Mixed Methods	Combination of quantitative and qualitative research instruments
Pragmatic	Qualitative and / or Quantitative methods may be employed.	Interviews, observation, testing and experiments.

(Adopted from Mackenzie and Knipe 2006)

5.4 RESEARCH METHODS

Research methods refer to the tools, instruments or techniques used for data collection; for example interviews, questionnaires, observation, documentary analysis (Bryman, 2008). I have adopted a mixed method approach towards data collection, which employs the use of more than one type of data sources, including; interviews, questionnaires and documents. Triangulation is one of the merits of mixed methods as it contributes to the reliability and validity of the research and enables confirmation and completeness (Arksey and Knight, 1999). Triangulating research allows the researcher to obtain a variety of information on the same issue, thereby using the strengths of each method to overcome the deficiencies of the other. For instance the strength of interviews complements the weakness of questionnaires where the respondents can express their views on the question and clarify any anomalies. On the other hand, the strength of questionnaires is that they allow a larger number of participants and anonymity can overcome the weakness of interviews which accommodates fewer participants and are prone to bias. Mixed methods of data collection enable comparison and prevent the researcher from drawing inappropriate conclusions than if they were based on one set of data or source. Looking at something from multiple points of view helps to improve accuracy and the quality of the research (Neuman, 2011).

5.4.1 Interviews

Interviews are flexible and adaptable ways of finding out about things and are widely used as a research instrument in qualitative research. Interviews involve a set of assumptions and understandings about a situation which are not normally associated with a casual conversation (Denscombe, 2003). One of the purposes of interviews is to sample respondent's opinions about an issue, to gather data or test or develop hypotheses (Cohen et al, 2007). I have used interviews as a tool for data collection because it yields rich insights into people's experiences, opinions, aspirations, attitudes and feelings (May, 1997). The interviewing process involved discussion and interaction with the interviewee, focusing on the research questions. The use of interviews allows participants express their opinions and views regarding the topic on a face to face situation, which encourages rapport and enables clarification of any questions during the process. Considering the nature of the research questions, interviews are suitable and useful for eliciting information from head teachers and CPD coordinators regarding CPD in schools. Given the population and work schedule of teachers interviewing may not be feasible tool for collecting data from teachers in this study. The number of headteachers and CPD coordinators that participated in the study was easily managed. In addition, responses to the types of questions asked were better addressed through interviews. It is hoped that the outcome of this study will yield a profound account of the experiences and perceptions of the participants.

Interviews can be fully structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Robson, 2002). Fully structured interviews have predetermined questions with fixed wordings usually in a pre-set order. Semi-structured interviews are used in flexible designs where predetermined questions are set but the interviewee usually in a pre-set order. In unstructured interviews, the interviewer has a general area of interest and concern but lets the conversation develop within this area. There are no predetermined questions, topics or order and the interviewee basically determines the agenda. I have used semi-structured interviews in this study because it encourages rapport with the interviewee so that he or she feels comfortable to discuss and provide information required and possibly spur a few questions which may not have been included in the original question. Semi

structured questions worked quite well in this study as it encouraged rapport with the interviewees who comfortable to express their views (see Appendix 7).

Like any other research method, there are limitations associated with interviews, one of which is difficulty in avoiding biases. Bias often occurs with insider researchers or when the interviewer already has a preconceived notion about a particular issue being researched. I ensured the process of transcription of the interviews was not influenced by the reports and information about the selected schools. Conducting interview were time consuming especially because of the busy schedule of some of the participants. This resulted in a reduction in the number of interviewees in the 28 schools to 18 interviews in total.

5.4.2 Surveys

Surveys are the easiest ways of retrieving information from a large number of people (Robson, 2002). It involves gathering information from a number of individuals, in order to learn something about the larger population from which the sample is drawn (May, 1997). They are used for descriptive, exploratory and explanatory purposes (Cohen et.al, 2007; Babbie, 2004). Surveys can be large scale i.e. involving a large population of 500 or more; or small scale involving a smaller sample of about 250 participants or less.

Given the population of teachers who participated in the research, questionnaires was the best method for obtaining a wide range of information from the teachers. Questionnaires provide a type and amount of information that other methods cannot provide because of the number of questions it can accommodate at once. The questionnaires consisted of a wide range of questions which are related to the research questions.

Questionnaires have several advantages over other methods of data collection including a wider coverage, offer a greater assurance of anonymity, produce quick responses consistent and are less expensive and quicker to administer compared to other methods (Bryman, 2008; Robson, 2002). It would take a longer time to interview five people than to administer 500 questionnaires. It is important to note that questionnaires do not allow probing, prompting and clarification of questions and they do not provide an opportunity for researchers to collect additional

information from the same respondents. There is no room for clarifications of questions or respond to comments as are normally anonymous. This however is partly addressed by the innovative combination of interviews and questionnaires in this study.

5.4.3 Questionnaire Design and Structure.

The process of designing the questionnaire consumed a huge amount of time as the researcher sought to ensure that the questionnaire was as tacit as possible. This required the questionnaires being revised through several people including colleagues for their views and inputs. It was then ratified by my supervisors, and university ethics committee before it was piloted. The questionnaires consisted of 56 questions in total, comprising of fixed alternative questions, open ended questions and Likert scale design questions (see Appendix 6).

The Likert scale is a ‘one dimensional scaling method’, which measures the extent to which a person agrees or disagrees with a question (Murray and Lawrence, 2000). This scale is often used to observe how the respondent rates a series of questions by gathering their views, feelings, opinions and attitudes. It allows the researcher to ask a wide range of questions which are easy for the respondents to answer. This method of ranking helps the researcher build in a degree of sensitivity and differentiation of response.

The 1 to 5 scale is the most commonly used and usually has the following format for level of agreement;

1-Strongly agree 2- Agree 3-Neutral 4- Disagree 5- Strongly disagree

The degree of effectiveness and frequency scale was also used for some of the questions as follows;

1-Very Effective 2- Quite Effective 3-Somewhat Effective

4- Not Effective 5- Not Applicable

The scale 1 to 5 indicates a decreasing order of effectiveness.

Despite the usefulness of the Likert scale, like any other method of enquiry it has its own limitations. As stated by Brown (2001), the scale gives some respondents

the option to 'sit on the fence' hence not giving a definite answer. Eliminating the neutral option on the other hand could also limit the respondent who is actually neutral from having an option thereby forcing them to choose an option, but which may not reflect their real position.

With the Likert scale, it is difficult to ascertain whether respondents are telling the truth, as some may falsify their replies due to the convenience and structure of the scale (Cohen et al, 2007). This is an unavoidable caveat with questionnaires; hence it is assumed that respondents have expressed their opinions regarding the questions. Another limitation is the fact that respondents do not have any way of expressing additional comments and views about particular questions if they have an alternative answer which may not be included in the scale. One of the ways in which the researcher attempted to tackle this issue was by including some open ended questions in the questionnaire where the respondents could express their own opinions.

Open ended questions were included to enable teachers express their opinions on specific questions. They are often used in small scale research where the researcher welcomes personal comments from the respondents in addition to ticking numbers and boxes (Cohen et al, 2007). According to Cohen et.al, open ended questionnaires catch authenticity, richness, depth of response, honesty and candour which is the hallmark of qualitative research. It is argued that open ended questions sometimes put people off as they consume more time and non-literate people may find it difficult to express themselves (Bryman, 2008).

In this study, the interest of the participants in the topic, and the number of questions encouraged their willingness to respond to open ended questions. There were only six open ended questions which required short answers hence this did not pose any challenges on the participants to fill. The freedom to answer questions in their own words without being influenced by alternative answers provided is one of the reasons. I considered including open ended questions (Opie, 2004). One of the caveats of using open ended questions is that analysis is time consuming and cumbersome.

The questionnaire was structured into four main sections with each section focussing on a particular theme. Section A aimed to collect bio data including;

age, sex, years of teaching experience and teaching qualification. Section B focused on the awareness and perception about CPD while Section C and D focused on the effectiveness and evaluation of CPD. This format was adopted by the researcher in order to have a different combination of questions which enabled the respondents to express their views and address the research questions.

5.5 SAMPLING STRATEGY

Sampling is simply the process of choosing the research units of the target population which are to be included in the study (Sarantakos, 1993). Two types of sampling generally used in social research are; probability and non-probability sampling. Probability Sampling usually requires strict probability rules but can be expensive, time consuming and relatively complicated. It offers a high degree of representativeness because it is possible to express the mathematical probability of the sample characteristics being reproduced in the population (Sarantakos, 1993). Non probability sampling is less strict and makes no claim to representativeness. Small scale research uses non probability samples because they are less complicated, less expensive and as there is no intention to generalise findings. Examples include convenience sampling, quota sampling, snow ball sampling, and purposive sampling (Cohen et. al., 2007).

The specific locations where the research is based, i.e. Abuja and Portsmouth were due to convenience reasons and easy accessibility. This was influenced by the established relationship and specific interest of the researcher in the two cities and the usefulness in implementation of the findings. I used a Purposive sampling method in selecting the schools, which met specific criteria as illustrated in Figure 5.2. In purposive sampling, specific traits or characteristics are identified in a sample in order to satisfy the enquiry being made Cohen et al (2007). Purposive sampling is also used to access knowledgeable people who have in-depth knowledge about particular issues by virtue of their professional role or experience (Ball, 1990). The rationale for using this method of sampling is to acquire in depth information concerning a specific area of interest, from those who are in the position to give it.

5.5.1 Population and Sample size

Research population defines the limits within which the research findings are applicable. The population considered is largely influenced by the research questions and available resources (Robson, 2002). The target population in this case is schools in the urban area, considering the focus of the study and the criteria for selection as indicated in Figure 5.2. The sample size is dependent on the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny (Cohen et.al, 2007) and it determines the reliability of the results and type of statistical analysis to be performed (Bryman, 2008). There is a significant difference in population and sample size of teachers in Abuja and Portsmouth which was largely influenced by the teacher population in both cities (see Appendices 16 and 17).

5.5.2 Criteria for Choice of Schools.

The following criteria were used in selecting the schools used to provide comparable indicators which were guided by certain characteristics that are considered priority in identifying a school in both countries. This is illustrated in Figure 5.2.

- i) Urban Location – Schools were selected based on their location in urban Abuja where there are infrastructural developments and exposure to basic facilities required in a school environment which is available in Portsmouth.
- ii) Primary Level – Schools at the Primary level of education often attended by children between the ages five to eleven years in both countries are the focus of the study.
- iii) Teacher Qualification- This is considered priority, given that the study is focused on the professional development of teachers. It will make sense to give select schools that give priority to teaching qualification.
- iv) Academic Performance of Schools - The performance of the school in external examinations and inspection reports reflects the standard and reputation of the school. For schools in Portsmouth, league tables and OFSTED⁴ reports

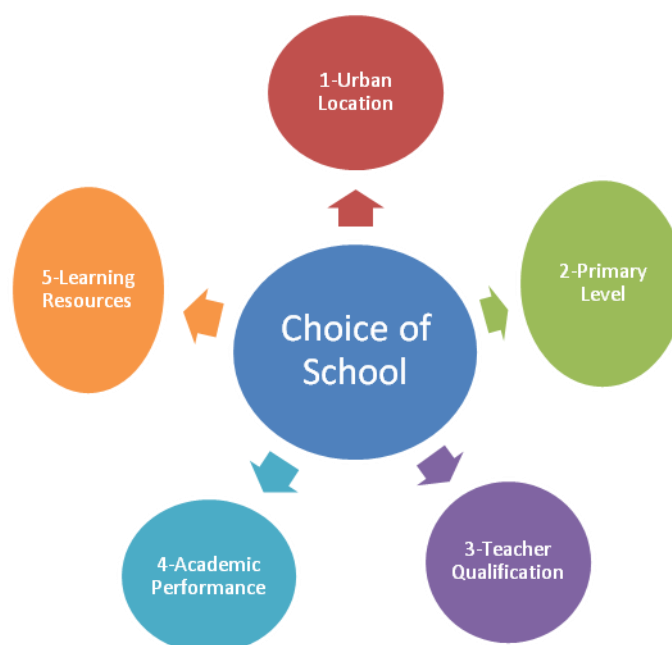
⁴ OFSTED (Office for Standards in Education) Children Services and Skills is the government department responsible for regulation and inspection of schools in the United Kingdom

were studied to identify schools that had good and outstanding ratings. These are all available and accessible online, through the schools' websites. In Abuja this information was obtained directly from the schools and from past records of performance in external examinations

v) Learning Resources- Participating Schools are expected to possess basic facilities and learning resources like, teaching aids, computers, library, internet access, play equipment and sports facilities.

The rationale behind these criteria is based on an issue in comparative research in finding appropriate and comparable indicators to serve as usable representations (Heidenheimer et al, 1990). Whilst all schools in Portsmouth met every criterion, significant differences exist in state and private schools in Abuja. State Schools in Abuja did not satisfy all the criteria due to peculiar issues and differences in technological development and infrastructure; however these were overlooked in order to enable their participation in this study.

Figure 5.2: Diagram Showing the Criteria Used For the Choice of School



5.6 PILOT STUDY

Undertaking pilot studies is a vital part of research especially if it involves questionnaires and interviews. A pilot study helps reduce the errors arising from the construction of the questions in the questionnaires and to increase reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaire (Cohen et al, 2007; Morrison, 1993; Oppenheim, 1992). It also helps to eliminate ambiguities, double-barrelled and negative questions and commonly misunderstood questions, Cohen et al (2007). This will in turn prevent unnecessary expenditure, cost and waste of effort. All these were taken into consideration during the pilot studies.

During a visit to Nigeria in April / May 2009 the researcher focused on establishing contacts, informing the relevant organisations about the purpose of the research, and collecting documents and relevant literature relating to schools and teachers in Abuja (see list of documents in Appendix 9). The first draft of the questionnaire was piloted using a school which the researcher was familiar with to pre- test and have an idea of their responses. The headteacher was also interviewed using a sample of the interview schedule to assess the suitability of the questions in addressing the research questions. 17 teachers filled in the questionnaire, including a section for comments and time taken in completing the questionnaire. This gave an idea of the areas to improve upon in preparation for the pilot in Portsmouth. The interview with the head teacher also helped to identify issues to address in the main interview and questionnaire.

In June 2009, revised drafts of the Interview questions and questionnaires were prepared. The drafts went through several stages of revision following suggestions and discussion with supervisors and colleagues. This resulted in significant changes in the questionnaire, the design and presentation. In particular some open ended questions were included to allow for self-expression and perceptions on various areas of enquiry.

The redrafted questionnaire was administered to twelve teachers from two schools in Portsmouth in July 2009. Feedback from the participants led to further restructuring, clarification and the addition of Likert scale and further open ended questions. The questionnaire was organised into four different sections as earlier explained. The final draft of the questionnaire was adopted for each country with

appropriate terms relevant to each system; for example, independent schools, state schools, Cert Ed, PGCE, in England were replaced with equivalent words like private schools, public schools, NCE, PGDE in the Nigerian questionnaires (See Appendix 6). The overall feedback from the pilot study provided the researcher with evidence on the validity of the questions, the clarity, attractiveness and appearance of the questionnaire and the time taken to complete the questionnaire.

The pilot study contributed to the reliability and validity of the research by helping to check clarity of the instructions, the adequacy of the questions, and structure of the questionnaire items and the feasibility of the survey. Reliability indicates accuracy and precision of the instruments, while validity ensures collection the information needed to address the research questions.

5.7 FIELD WORK AND DATA COLLECTION

Field work encompasses the empirical research and data collection that was undertaken in both countries between September 2009 and April 2010.

5.7.1 Data Collection in Portsmouth

Prior to data collection a background study on the different types of primary schools in the city was done to enable adequate selection of schools. Applying the five key criteria outlined in Figure 5.2, 20 schools comprising of four independent and 16 state schools were contacted in September 2009. A letter of introduction about the research, consent letter, and a reference letter from the University were sent to all the schools via email and manually (see Appendices 2, 3, 4 and 5). Due to slow response, phone calls and emails were made to clarify which of the schools were willing to participate. Many of the schools refused although a few gave their consent claiming their teachers had such heavy workloads and would not be able to make time to participate. Teachers in England are engaged are often engaged in their classrooms as primary teaching is classroom based. Some head teachers are also involved in teaching. Another reason for non-participation as stated by a Headteacher, was that the study did not have any direct benefit to the school. From the initial contacts made, only two positive responses were obtained from the selected schools.

As the schools in England approached half term, I had to intensify efforts to

engage more schools. An additional supporting letter was obtained from the School of Education in the University who had professional contacts with key people in the schools including school governors, Deputy Heads and Headteachers. This paved the way for access to four further schools but resulted in only one positive response. Five of the original schools were contacted again during the third term, and two more schools consented while two others refused due to their busy schedule. The final number of participating schools in Portsmouth was eight. This was not surprising, as there is a common difficulty with conducting research however lessons have been learnt with regards to timing and manner of approach for better response rates.

The interviews consisted of fifteen predetermined semi structured questions, but the order was varied in some cases depending on the perception of what seemed most appropriate to the interviewer. All interviews with the school heads or CPD coordinators were recorded using a digital recorder and each lasted between 45 and 60 minutes. Transcribing each interview took about four to five hours. The questionnaires were handed over to the head teachers to distribute to teachers and the researcher returned one week to collect the completed questionnaires.

5.7.2 Data Collection in Nigeria

Fieldwork in Nigeria lasted from January to April 2010 during the second term of the school session. The research was focused on the urban area of Abuja and detailed enquiries and investigations about the schools were obtained from documents from ERC and key staff who work closely with the schools in the inspectorate division. For easy access to the private schools, the researcher enlisted the support of the President of the National Association of Proprietors of Private Schools (NAPPS). Being an old member of the association, permission was granted for a ten minute presentation on the research at NAPPS meeting where the majority of school proprietors and head teachers were present. This gave the Heads of schools confidence in the researcher which allowed easy access to the schools. After the presentation, 27 school heads indicated interest in participating in the research. A form was given to all the school representatives to be completed providing basic information on the school. These were returned and enabled scheduling appointments for interviews and distribution of the

questionnaires. Schools were selected using the above key criteria, and 15 participated.

Before the state schools were contacted a formal letter of introduction, reference letter from the University and information sheet on the research were sent to UBEB⁵ (Universal Basic Education Board), which is the department responsible for overseeing state primary schools in Abuja. This complied with official procedures in conducting research, and enabled easy access to the public schools. Five state schools were contacted but only four were selected for the study. A total of 15 private schools and four state schools participated in the study. Letters of Introduction from the University, Information sheets on the research and consent forms were distributed to all the 19 schools and appointments were then scheduled for the Interviews through follow up phone calls.

Of the 19 schools, 14 heads teachers were interviewed while five requested to complete the interview schedule in written format due to limited time and heavy work schedule. Each interview lasted between 45 to 60 minutes. The interviews were recorded using a digital recorder and then transcribed afterwards. The process of transcription took about four to five hours each depending on the length of the interview (See Appendix 7 for a sample of interview schedule).

5.7.3 Response Rates

Response rate is the percentage of a sample that agrees to participate (Bryman, 2008). The response rates from the schools in Abuja were higher than the schools in Portsmouth as shown in Table 5.2, which may have been due to several factors. Firstly, the appropriate timing is very important in determining the degree of response from any survey (Cohen et. al, 2007). Teachers work intensively in primary schools for example attending to the needs of children, marking, teaching, and assessment, report writing, and undertaking other co-curricular activities in the school. There are also peak periods where they have to meet deadlines, often around examination periods. The period during which the questionnaires were distributed in Portsmouth schools, happened to coincide with the peak period, prior to Christmas where many activities occur. Getting the attention of the head

⁵ UBEB (Universal Basic Education Board) is a division of the ministry of education responsible for provision of free and compulsory basic education for school age children in Nigeria.

teachers was quite difficult as they had to ensure that the teachers met their responsibilities. Robson (2002) asserts that schools do not welcome researchers during examination or inspection periods or periods close to holiday or special occasions like Christmas. This contributed to the low response rate in the schools in Portsmouth compared to the Nigerian schools where the researcher distributed the questionnaires earlier, two weeks into the beginning of the term.

Another reason could be that the researcher was already familiar with the school cultures in Abuja and has some affiliation with NAPPS; hence there were no restrictions or suspicion regarding disclosure of information. The topic is also a current area of emphasis schools in Nigeria compared to Portsmouth where CPD has been a practice in the UK for over a decade.

Table 5.2: Response Rates of Schools in Portsmouth and Nigeria

City	Number of Schools Contacted	Number of schools that participated	Percentage Response Rate
Portsmouth	20	8 (6 state, 2 independent)	40 %
Abuja	30	19(15 private, 4 state)	67%

5.8 RELIABILITY, VALIDITY AND CREDIBILITY.

Reliability, Validity and Credibility are very important concepts considered in this study as it determines the quality of the research. The three concepts are interrelated and all focused on establishing truthfulness and consistency in research.

Reliability has to do with the consistency within which the observations are made. For research to be reliable, it should be dependable and consistent, and produce similar results if repeated under the same conditions (Neuman 2011, p. 214). Since there are different interpretations of the data collected it may be difficult to establish reliability, however, care was taken to ensure that findings are consistent

with data collected. As previously explained, undertaking a pilot study contributed towards improving the reliability. Cronbach's alpha coefficient test was also used to determine the reliability of questionnaires. This is an indicator of internal consistency during surveys (Bryman, 2008). It is important that scales are reliable with the samples the reliability of a scale depends on the sample with which it is used (Pallant, 2007). The Cronbach alpha coefficient values are dependent on the number of items on a scale and predict the reliability of the scale used. According to DeVellis (2003), the value should be above 0.7 to determine if the scale has internal consistency. Hence any value less than 0.7 are not considered reliable. The alpha coefficient value means that the items in each construct are understood by most of the respondents. The reliability of the questionnaire was tested using PASW 18 and the test scale used had a good internal consistency with the alpha coefficient of **0.833** which implies that the questionnaire is reliable since the value is above 0.7 (Pallant, 2007).

Validity has to do with the strength, worth or value and the degree to which a test appears to measure what it purports to (Borg & Gall, 1989). A valid research finding is one which similarity exists between reality and description of reality thereby implying truthfulness (Neuman, 2011). Validity is determined by using the appropriate instruments for data collection. I therefore, ensured that adequate and appropriate research instruments were used to elicit information from the participants as previously explained. In addition, the questionnaires and interview schedule were reviewed by other colleagues and pilot tests were conducted in both countries.

Credibility depends on the consistency within which a range of data sources are considered and multiple measurements employed (Bryman, 2008; Robson, 2002). Credibility of data is established by capturing the essence of the participants' stories from interviews, observations and responses to the questionnaires. Hence, there is correspondence between the findings and reality (Merriam, 1998). I have used mixed methods of data collection to help in triangulation and improve credibility. According to Neuman (2011), reliability validity and credibility are complementary concepts even though they may sometimes conflict with each other. He argues that although reliability is necessary to have a valid measure of a concept, it does not guarantee that the measure will be valid. I have attempted to

employ every possible means to improve the reliability and validity however it is important to bear in mind that as human subjects are key participants disparities may be unavoidable.

5.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical concerns are very important in social research because human subjects are involved. According to Bryman (2008), ethical responsibility rests with the research. Ethics is a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others. (Cavan 1977, p.810).

One of the ethical considerations in any research is respect for democracy which includes freedom to investigate, to ask questions, to give and receive information, to express and criticize ideas and to publish research findings (Bassey, 1999). Most research involves asking questions, making enquiries, criticizing ideas, and publishing findings. It is based on this premise that research is conducted. In this study, ethical approval was sought before administering any questionnaire or conducting interviews. The questionnaire was approved by the research ethics committee of the University (See Appendix 1).

In conducting research, truthfulness in data collection, analysis and reporting findings must be given priority. This is referred to as respect for truth according to Bassey (1999). As a matter of credibility, the researcher ensured that every primary data and information collected was genuine and a report of the real situation. Another important ethical issue is the need to show respect and maintain the dignity, and privacy to fellow human beings involved. The participant's privacy and confidentiality was given due consideration, and he or she was assured of confidentiality and privacy in any information provided (Bryman, 2008; Neuman, 2006). The responsibility for ethical research ultimately lies with the researcher and care was taken to ensure that ethical standards were met.

The researcher's identity and affiliations may affect someone's decision to participate and should be considered relevant to informed consent, Informed consent was obtained from participants including the right to participate voluntarily or withdraw at any point Creswell (2003). According to Dane (1990), part of a researcher's responsibility is to represent him or herself accurately.

Participants were given a detailed summary of the study, what it entailed, intended outcomes, and assurance of confidentiality. This was considered in the reference and introductory letters (see appendix 3).

The principle of voluntary consent was adhered to as participants are given the opportunity to participate willingly without any form of pressure from the researcher. Bearing this in mind any form of deception in order to cajole the participant to agree to participate in the research was avoided. Bryman (2008) suggests that people need to understand what they are being asked to do and why they have been chosen so that they can make an informed decision. This was included in the informed consent letters which were sent to the participating schools in order to have an understanding of the study before proceeding. In order to elicit detailed and relevant information from participants, they were treated with dignity and respect and were assured that the information they have provided will not be used against them in any way. It is important to note that the tone of the cover letter for the questionnaire was polite.

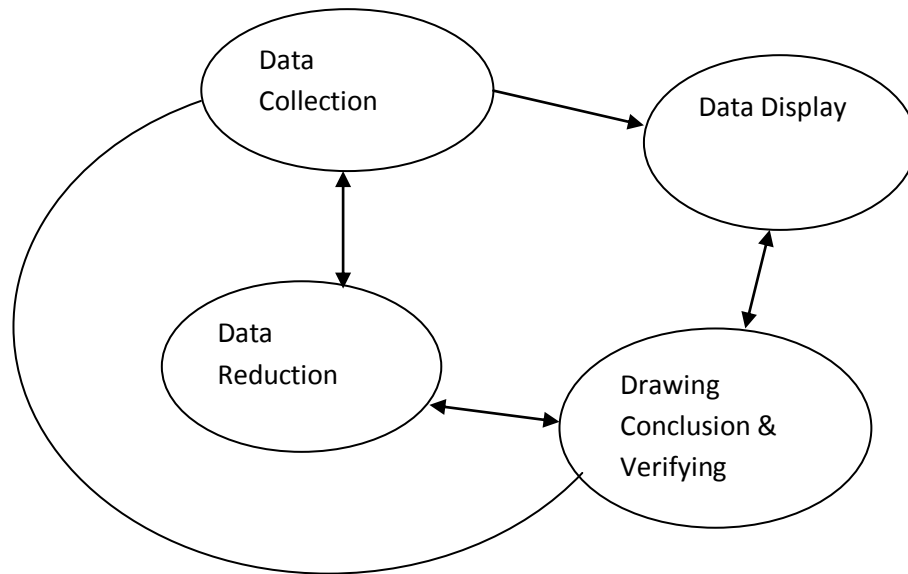
5.10 PROCESS OF DATA ANALYSIS

This section discusses the process and outlines the framework adopted for the data analysis and discusses the rationale behind the choice. Qualitative data analysis is useful in illustrating and describing data obtained from interviews, questionnaire surveys or experiments and it simply transforms data into findings. Miles and Huberman (1994), claim that one of the strengths of well collected qualitative data is that, they focus on naturally occurring ordinary events in natural settings so that we can have a clear insight into what real life is like. This is demonstrated in the interviews and questionnaires used for data collection. Another characteristic of qualitative data is the richness and strong potential for revealing complexity. This implies that there are different ways of looking at social life and analysing data. According to Punch (1998), there is no right way or formula for analysing qualitative data however, it is pertinent to note that the strengths of qualitative data rest on the competence with which the analysis is carried out.

The overarching framework for data analysis draws from Miles and Huberman's Interactive Model as illustrated in Figure 5.3. It identifies three concurrent flows of activity throughout each stage of the analysis. These are data reduction, data display and drawing of conclusion and verification. Data reduction refers to the process of selecting, focussing, simplifying and transforming the data. It sharpens sorts, focuses, discards and organises data such that the final conclusions can be drawn and verified (Miles and Huberman 1994, p.10). Data reduction occurs continuously throughout the analysis process right from data collection up to when final conclusions are drawn. I constantly reflected on the data, writing summaries, teasing out themes, or writing memos which helped to reduce the volume and extrapolate the key findings. In doing this I carefully ensured that relevant information was not lost during the process of reduction (Punch, 1998). In this study, data reduction was implemented throughout the process as the questionnaires and transcripts were thoroughly scanned to select the relevant information and organise the data in a coherent manner.

Data display is an organised, compressed, assembly of information that permits drawing of conclusion and action (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Due to the voluminous nature of qualitative data, displays help at all stages throughout the analysis as indicated in the interactive model below. Data is represented or displayed in form of charts and tables throughout the next chapter. Having verified from literature and documents, conclusions are drawn from the data reduction and displays in the aim of the whole process of analysis. Every stage in the interactive model is vital and contributes towards the overall aim of the research. Without reducing or displaying the data drawing up conclusions may be quite cumbersome. The components as shown in the interactive model Figure 5.3 were used in presenting the data and throughout the process of analysis.

Figure 5.3 Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model



(Source: Miles and Huberman 1994, p.12)

5.10.1 Conceptual Frame work for Data Analysis

A conceptual framework specifies who and what will be studied, how the data was collected and what was done with the data (Miles and Huberman ,1994), The framework adopted in this study consists of three stages, borrowing from Miles and Hubermans interactive model as indicated in Figure 5.4.

Stage I represents the collection of data and the preliminary stage of the data reduction process which requires coding of questionnaires and transcription of interviews. The coded questionnaires were entered into PASW 18 for further analysis. This helped to reduce the bulkiness of the questionnaires from hard to soft copy saved in a folder in PASW 18.

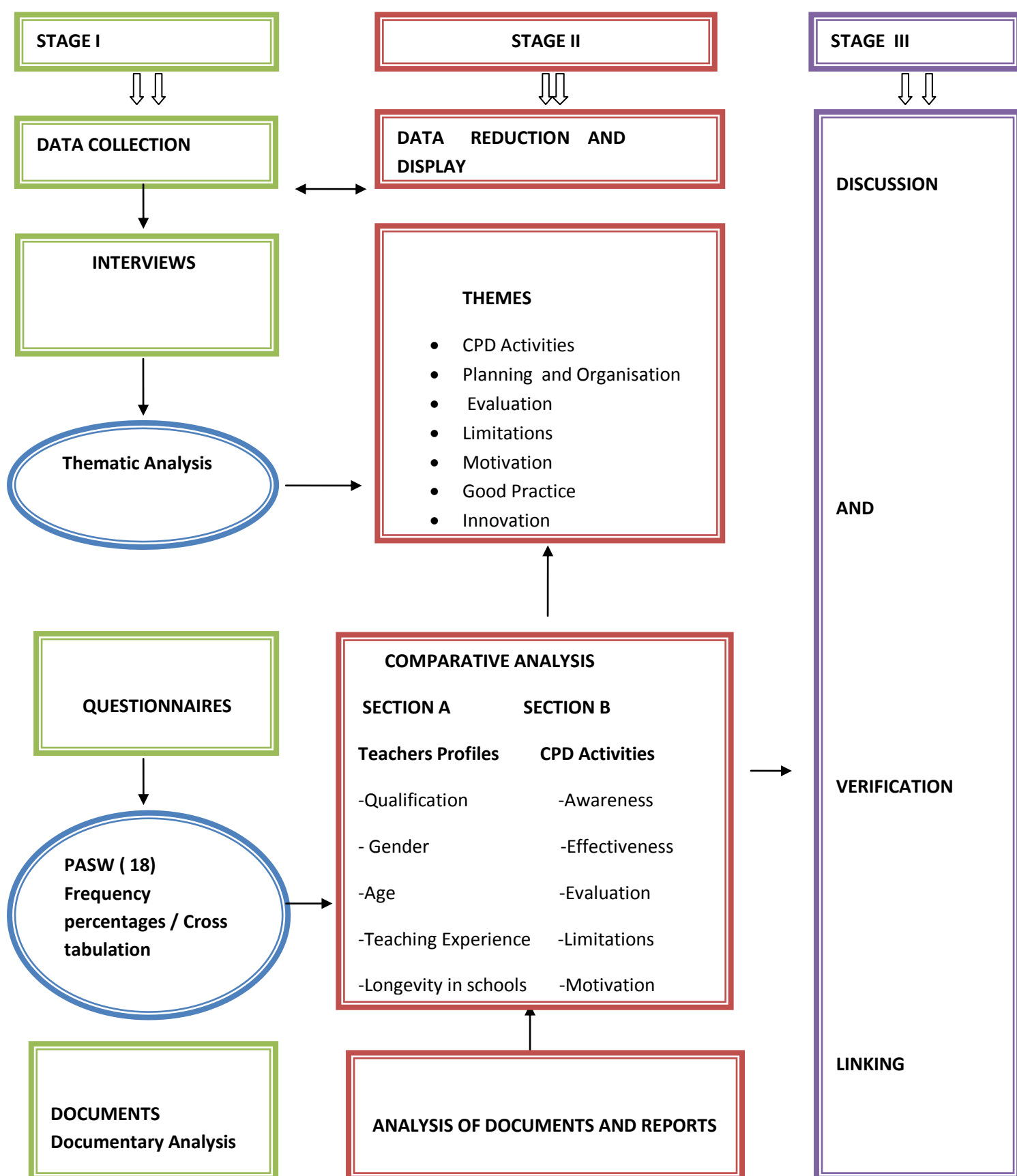
Stage II refers to data reduction and display and analysing the interview transcripts and questionnaires thematically using frequency percentages and cross tabulation (PASW 18). The key themes investigated are indicated in the boxes.

The questionnaires were categorised into two main sections which comprises teacher profiles and CPD experience.

Stage III summarises interprets and discusses the findings by verifying with literature and documents.

The overall process of data analysis can be described as iterative, integrative and synergistic, as it involved constant reflection and use of information from every stage. Reference was constantly made to field notes and review of literature, as conclusions and verification were made, in order to ensure its validity, plausibility and sturdiness as suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). Early conclusions were held lightly, maintaining openness and no final conclusions, interpretation or verifications were made until data collection, reduction and display was complete.

Figure 5.4: Conceptual Frame Work for Data Analysis



5.10.2 Management and Storage of Data

Data management and data analysis are interrelated in the sense that data has to be well stored, easily accessible, and well managed before it can be analysed. Data management has to do with any operations required for a systematic, coherent, process of data collection storage and retrieval (Miles and Huberman 1994). Qualitative researchers typically generate large volumes of often variegated material, producing in effect an assemblage of data in the form of words or numerical data sets. Due to the quantity of data generated from the questionnaires and interviews, the researcher had to develop a good system for managing the data. Without careful data management strategy, data can easily be miscoded, mislabelled or mislinked. However, once a gap is observed any miscoded or mislabelled data can easily be retrieved and corrected. This was very useful during the process of analysis as checks had to be made to some questionnaires in order to confirm certain information.

The main issues in data management is ensuring high quality accessible data, proper documentation of what analysis has just been carried out and retention of data and associated analysis after the study is complete (Miles and Huberman ,1994). Throughout the process, I ensured that each stage of the analysis was properly documented and labelled. Storage of data was done both manually and electronically. Recorded interviews were copied from the digital recorder and saved in a file in the computer backed up in a storage device. The transcripts were labelled appropriately and stored electronically, considering the fact that research data sets are fragile assets (Freedland and Carney, 1992). Storage of the interviews was necessary for reference or confirmation at a later date. While each interview transcript was labelled and examined as the themes were being identified, the questionnaires were also coded and labelled. Field work notes were useful as reference was made to confirm where certain information was categorised. They were structured into different sections and themes and they came in useful at some point during the analysis. Hard copies of the questionnaires were labelled according to the codes and stored in different water proof plastic envelopes in a filing cabinet, while the coded ones were stored electronically in PASW 18.

5.11 METHODOLOGICAL LIMITATIONS

Several limitations were encountered while undertaking the research, some which have a general currency for comparative research in education as mentioned in chapter two (Crossley and Watson, 2003; Phillips, 2000; Broadfoot, 1999; Heidenheimer et al, 1990) and other based on the methodology. I shall focus on the specific limitations related to the data collection and analysis process.

One of the caveats I encountered was with contextual and cultural diversity which is a general issue in comparative research (Crossley and Watson, 2003). The different cultures and attitudes of the participants in both countries probably affected the responses to the interviews and questionnaires and collection of documents. While most of the English schools were very open and willing to provide any documents required by the researcher, the Nigerian interviewees were reluctant to release any official documents due to the closed culture and competitive rivalry amongst schools. Some of the documents provided by the English schools included, SDP, CPD policies, staff profiles, schools prospectuses, teachers reflective log samples and evaluation sheets for CPD which served as evidence to support the responses and findings. Only two schools in Abuja provided a school magazine and prospectus which were not very informative documents that relate to teachers' professional development. Bearing in mind culture and context issues I sought to understand the cultures and modus operandi of both systems by making enquires through relevant contacts using literature.

Accessibility of Data was a major limitation with the Nigerian system, due to lapses of record keeping and inadequate updating of information. Constant visits to SUBEB, NTI and ERC, and Ministry of Education for current reports and relevant documents was not effective. While the basic information and reports on the English schools were available online there was no online access to the information required from the schools in Abuja, neither was there any current data available from other sources. This is peculiar to developing countries as affirmed by Crossley and Watson (2003).

Distance, time and funding were unavoidable constraints in this study. Due to the distance from Nigeria, regular trips during fieldwork and pilot study not possible. I therefore ensured that I accomplished as much as I could during my two trips to

Nigeria. This also affected the possibility of a final pilot study which was conducted before the main survey in Portsmouth.

Taking account of the school calendar and programme, the two trips to Nigeria were planned during term times when schools were in session. This enabled the researcher to establish contacts, source for documents and data and carry out further data collection. This however, did not work out as well with the schools in Portsmouth as the periods scheduled for data collection coincided with half term and the end of year activities as explained. Hence it affected the response rates.

Methodological issues identified with comparative research in education (Crossley and Watson, 2003; Phillips, 2000; Broadfoot, 1999) were addressed during the empirical research. Differences in nomenclature and terminologies of some concepts are unavoidable in cross cultural comparisons, which I addressed during the questionnaire design and interview process.

With regards to analysing the data, certain limitations and caveats peculiar to qualitative researchers were considered. Robson (2002) argues that there are bound to be biases and deficiencies during the process of interpretation, being human analysts. Crossley and Watson (2003), claim that bias is common with comparative studies, given that we are all conditioned by our upbringing, culture, educational background and socio political values and attitudes. Therefore, caution was taken to avoid or minimise such tendencies by eliminating any preconceived notions, prejudiced impressions or information about the schools, teachers or countries which could influence the interpretation of the data.

As it concerns processing of data collected, Salder (1981) claims that too much data, could make the data analysis procedure quite cumbersome. This was resolved by the use of computer aided software for data analysis and storage (i.e. PASW) for the questionnaires. Care was taken to avoid early conclusive deduction and generalisation during the process of data entry and preliminary analysis until the whole data had been collected and ready for analysis. According to Salder (1981), where there is not sufficient information from the data collected either due to very low responses or incomplete questionnaires, analysis is quite difficult and not very reliable. In this study incomplete questionnaires were very few and did not affect the process of analysis.

5.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of the research design, and described the methodological framework adopted in undertaking the research as illustrated in Figure 5.1. It has explained the rationale behind comparative research; the process involved in comparing and pointed out key issues with comparative studies. The research follows a mixed method approach and has used various instruments for data collection, considering however, the strengths and caveats. It described the pilot study and fieldwork carried out in both countries, and explained the sampling strategy adopted for selecting the schools. The chapter also explains the reliability, validity and credibility of the research and demonstrates a consciousness of ethical issues considered. It described the conceptual framework adopted in analysing the data showing the interrelation between the different stages and explained how it was implemented in this study. The chapter concludes by enumerating the limitations encountered during the empirical research and some of the precautions taken in addressing the caveats.

CHAPTER 6

DATA PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter described the research design and methodology, highlighting the rationale behind the methods adopted for data collection and analysis. This chapter uses the framework for data analysis illustrated in Figure 5. 5. The data presented in this section was obtained from interviews and questionnaires. The chapter begins with a comparative profile of the schools, interviewees and teachers in Abuja and Portsmouth. It then focuses on findings from the interviews and questionnaire regarding CPD, which are described thematically, according to the framework.

6.2 COMPARATIVE PROFILE OF SCHOOLS IN THE SURVEY

This section provides profiles of the schools used in the case study and examines key characteristics including the criteria upon which the selection was based, as illustrated in Appendices 16 and 17. Information about the schools is vital as it provides a better picture of the context which may be relevant during the analysis and discussion. Pseudonyms are used in place of the names of the schools for the purpose of confidentiality as explained in chapter 5.

The number of schools and those in the survey are sequentially higher in Abuja compared to Portsmouth, which accounts partly for the difference in the number of schools that participated in the survey (Appendices 10 and 11 shows the distribution of schools in both cities). There is more variation in the number of teachers and pupils in Abuja with larger class sizes. This invariably affects the quality of teaching and learning as studies have shown (Johnson et al, 2000; Crawford and Freeman 1996). Private and independent schools have smaller class sizes than state schools, although this varies in different contexts. In Portsmouth state schools also have larger class sizes with an average of 25 while independent schools are about 15. Research suggests that countries in sub-Saharan Africa and southern Asia have the highest class sizes and teacher / pupil ratio than other parts of the world, which affects teacher efficiency (Huebler, 2008; Mulkeen et al, 2007). Class sizes in Portsmouth state schools are similar to private schools in

Abuja but much lower than their state schools.

There is a huge gap between the age of the schools in Portsmouth and Abuja, which may reflect on the development of their respective educational systems. Whilst schools in Portsmouth have been in existence from 30 to 138 years, schools in Abuja are between 9 and 20 years old. This is not surprising as Abuja became the capital of Nigeria in 1992, and is a relatively new evolving city, with most schools at their developing stage, therefore not as fully established as the schools in Portsmouth.

Schools in Portsmouth are more technologically advanced with better facilities compared to Abuja. With longer years of establishment, Portsmouth schools have better facilities and resources, and have higher standards and quality compared to those in Abuja. Private schools have more flexibility and autonomy with regards to provision of facilities and infrastructure; although this is dependent on the available funds, management and leadership in place. A poor maintenance culture, lack of resources, poor support system and inadequate funding which is characteristic of state schools in Nigeria contribute to the decrepit condition (Oni, 2011; Adebayo, 2009; Tooley et al, 2005). Arguably, the stage of development of the country reflects the availability of some key resources and technological advancement in the schools. Comparison of the profiles shows a huge disparity in the condition of state schools in Portsmouth and Abuja, while independent and private schools show some similarity in structure and organisation although with differences in context and culture explained in chapter 2.

6.3 BACKGROUND OF INTERVIEWEES

Most interviewees in Portsmouth had similar roles and designations. The eight respondents comprised two head teachers and six deputy heads who were also CPD coordinators. They were responsible for overseeing staff CPD, monitoring teachers' development and assessment, performance management, and were also involved in classroom teaching. All schools have budgets for their staff development and training which the interviewees were aware of. This is not surprising in the English schools, as head teachers are given financial authority

since the introduction of the LMS⁶ in 1988. The majority of the interviewees were female, which is a common trend in primary education. Most of them have worked in the schools for over 10 years.

The Nigerian interviewees comprised head teachers, school proprietors and an administrator. Although they are part of the senior management, most of them did not have much autonomy or knowledge of key information regarding school management and staff development. In the state schools, head teachers have little input in decision-taking as they are government maintained. Of the 15 interviewees two were males from private schools and 13 were females of which two were proprietors and the others were headteachers. The term ‘CPD coordinator’ was not common in the Nigerian schools and none of the interviewees had such a designated position. Three of the interviewees who occupied headship positions in state schools (PS1, PS2, PS4), and one in the independent school (PI2) had a professional qualification and training (NPQH)⁷ based on their headship positions. There is no formalised training or qualification for headship positions in Nigeria or most African countries. Studies have indicated inadequacies in preparation and training for head teachers and principals throughout Africa (Kusi, 2008; Bush and Oduro, 2006). This has led to investigation into leadership and professional development for head teachers. An example is the LfL (Leadership for Learning)⁸ in Ghana.

6.4 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS’ PROFILES

Section A of the questionnaire provides information on the teachers’ profile, including their age, qualifications, gender, years of teaching experience and number of years spent in each school and reasons for going into teaching.

⁶LMS([Local Management of Schools](#)) was introduced as part of the Education Reform Act (1988) which allowed all schools to be taken out of the direct financial control of the local authorities and gave financial control to head teachers, principals and school governors.

⁷ NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship) is underpinned by the National Standards for Head teachers and is designed for passionate, highly motivated people who are interested in headship position in schools. Following the schools white paper 2010, the programme is being redeveloped.

⁸ The Leadership for learning programme was based on findings from a five year DFID funded research project implementing quality education in low income countries.

Teachers' profiles were cross examined with the types of schools in both countries (using PASW 18), to determine any similarities or differences, which generated some interesting findings that are useful for later analysis.

6.4.1 Comparison of Teacher Qualifications

In response to the research question regarding types of qualifications this section examines and compares the qualifications of the teachers in the survey schools in both countries. Given that teacher's formal education can influence their attitude towards professional development (OECD 2009, p. 28), an insight into their training and qualifications is relevant to this study. This will provide an insight to the educational backgrounds and qualifications of the teachers in Portsmouth and Abuja, as it may generate findings which may reflect on their professional development.

Tables 6.1 and 6.2 show the types of teacher qualifications in schools in Portsmouth and Abuja while Figures 6.1 and 6.2 provide a graphical representation. Overall, schools in Portsmouth had predominantly qualified teachers (98%), whereas 86.9% teachers in Abuja were qualified. In Portsmouth only one out of 48 teachers did not have a teaching qualification however, this particular respondent was a undergoing a SCITT program which is an identified pathway to teaching in England as indicated in chapter 4. It can therefore be argued that all teachers in Portsmouth are qualified. Out of 205 teachers in Abuja, 28 (13.7%) did not have a teaching qualification. While enquiring, about the types of qualifications these teachers had, it was discovered that some possessed diplomas, while others were graduates but without teaching qualifications. Of the 28 unqualified teachers, 12 had enrolled on teacher training programs. In Abuja, 13.5 % of teachers in private schools were unqualified while 11.8% of teachers had no teaching qualifications in state schools.

Private schools are more flexible in recruitment and selection, although they are also expected to adhere to the policy regarding employment of qualified teachers. Findings suggest that this policy is yet to be fully implemented although the majority (over 80%) of teachers in both schools are qualified. These figures are not representative of the population of teachers in Abuja, hence cannot be generalised as the study focussed on the urban area only.

Comparing the types of teacher qualifications in Portsmouth and Abuja schools shows a significant disparity in the level of qualifications. Of the 48 teachers that participated in the study in Portsmouth, only two (4.2%) had Cert.Ed. qualifications, one of which enrolled on a part time degree program. The situation in the schools in Abuja is quite different since 67 (32.7%) of the 205 teachers had NCE which is the minimum teaching Certificate in Nigeria. 69.5% of teachers in Portsmouth were graduates with (B.Ed. and B.A.Ed.), compared to 36.5% graduate teachers in Abuja. Of the 205 teachers in Abuja, only 17.6% had PGDE, whereas 31.3 % of teachers in Portsmouth schools had PGCEs.

Independent / private schools in both countries appear to have a higher percentage of teachers with postgraduate qualifications compared to state schools. Whilst the independent schools have 58.3% of teachers with PGCE, state schools have only 25%. On the other hand, Private schools in Abuja have 19.3% of teachers with PGDE and only 11.8% in the state schools. This suggests that independent / private schools in both countries tend to attract more highly qualified teachers than state schools.

Generally, the most prevalent teaching qualification in the state school in Portsmouth is the B.Ed. which along with the B.A.Ed. accounts for 69.4% of the teachers while PGCE accounts for 25% of teachers. On the contrary, in Abuja, NCE is the predominant qualification (47.1%) in state schools, after which B.Ed. follows with 29.4% and then PGDE which is 11.8%.

In comparison with the findings from the study, B.Ed. was the most common qualification in Portsmouth, followed by PGCE and then B.A.Ed. The least common qualification was the Cert.Ed which is supported by both sources of data. It is important to note that the number of participants in the study is not fully representative of all teachers in Portsmouth or Abuja hence findings may not be generalizable. Overall, findings indicate that teachers in Portsmouth have higher qualifications than their counterparts in Abuja.

Table 6.1: Cross Tabulation of Schools and Teaching Qualification in Portsmouth

SCHOOL TYPE	TEACHING QUALIFICATION					Total
	Nil	PGCE	B.Ed	BA.Ed	Cert Ed	
STATE	1 2.8%	9 25.0%	16 44.4%	9 25.0%	1 2.8%	36 100.0%
INDEPENDENT	0 .0%	7 58.3%	4 33.3%	0 .0%	1 8.3%	12 100.0%
TOTAL	1 2.1%	16 33.3%	20 41.7%	9 18.8%	2 4.2%	48 100.0%

Table 6.2: Cross Tabulation of School Type and Teaching Qualification Abuja

SCHOOL TYPE	TEACHING QUALIFICATION					Total
	NIL	PGDE	B.ED	BA(ED)	NCE	
STATE	4 11.8%	4 11.8%	7 20.6%	3 8.8%	16 47.1%	34 100.0%
PRIVATE	23 13.5%	33 19.3%	37 21.6%	25 14.6%	53 31.0%	171 100.0%
TOTAL	27 13.7%	37 18.0%	44 21.5%	28 13.7%	69 33.7%	205 100.0%

Figure 6.1: Bar Chart showing Teacher Qualification in Portsmouth Schools

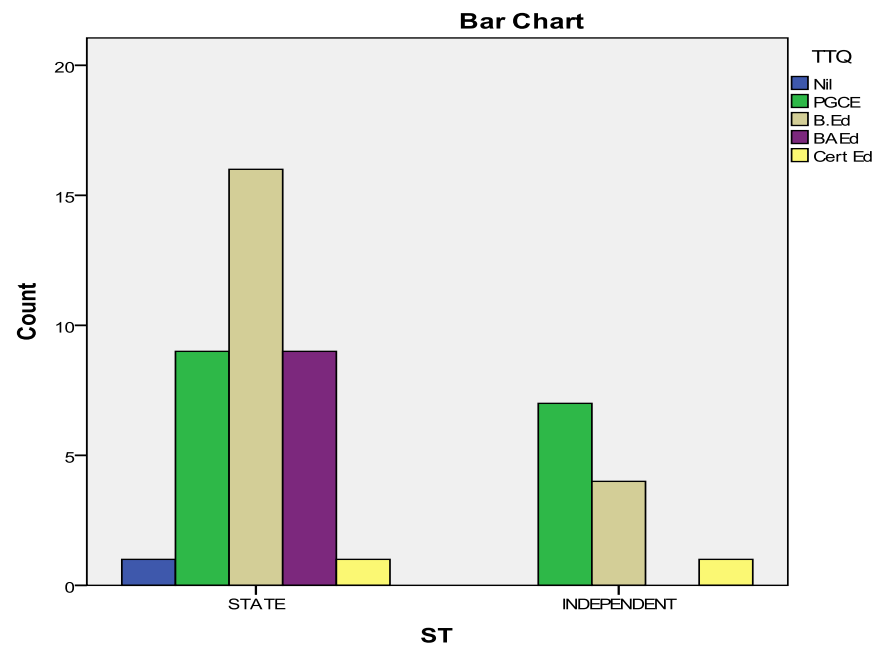
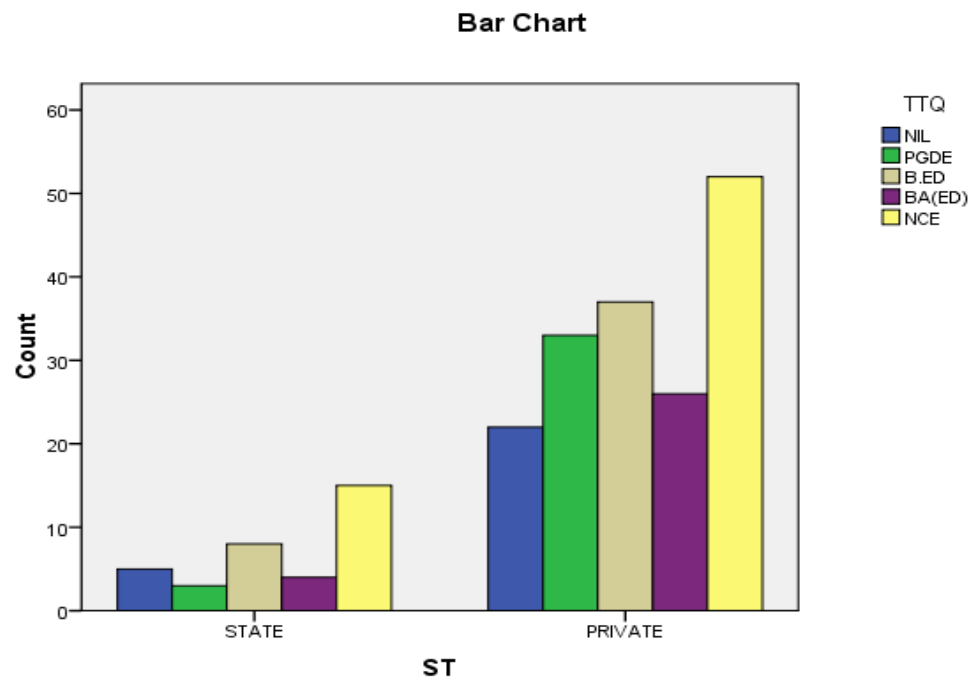


Figure 6.2: Bar chart showing Teacher Qualification in Abuja Schools



6.4.2 Comparison of Gender in Schools

Female teachers outnumber their male counterpart in both countries as shown in tables 6.3 and 6.4 below. In Portsmouth 83.3% of teachers in the survey were female and 16.7% were male, while in Abuja, the corresponding proportions were 64.0% and 35.8% respectively. Although a higher percentage of female teachers in primary schools is common to both countries, more men are involved in primary teaching in Abuja compared to Portsmouth. Gender imbalance in primary teaching has followed a particular trend in most countries over the years (OECD, 2009) and female teachers now dominate the teaching profession as reflected in this study.

Table 6.3: Cross Tabulation of Schools and Gender in Portsmouth.

SCHOOL TYPE	SEX		TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALE	
STATE	6 16.7%	30 83.3%	36 100.0%
INDEPENDENT	2 16.7%	10 83.3%	12 100.0%
TOTAL	8 16.7%	40 83.3%	48 100.0%

Table 6.4: Cross Tabulation of Schools and Gender in Abuja

SCHOOL TYPE	SEX		TOTAL
	MALE	FEMALE	
STATE	13 38.2%	21 61.8%	34 100.0%
PRIVATE	61 35.7%	110 64.3%	171 100.0%
TOTAL	74 36.1%	131 63.9%	205 100.0%

6.4.3 Comparison of Age category in Schools

Tables 6.5 and 6.6 show comparison of the age ranges of teachers in both countries. A huge disparity exists between the age ranges of teachers that participated in the study in both countries. In Portsmouth, there were more teachers in the older category of 41 to 50 years (29.2%) and 51 years and above (25%), whereas the younger category of 21 to 30 and 31 to 40 are 22.9%. In contrast, the majority of teachers in Abuja are in the younger age category of 31 to 40 (60.5%) and 21 to 30 years (24.4%) whereas older teachers aged 41 to 50 are 14.1% and only 1% are 51 years and above in Abuja .

This indicates a younger teaching population in primary schools in Abuja and an ageing teacher population in Portsmouth. This is clearly illustrated in Figures 6.3 and 6.4. Studies indicate that England has an ageing teaching profession especially in the primary section, (OECD, 2009; MacLeod, 2004). According to the GTC (2011) survey of teachers in Portsmouth, there is a uniform distribution of age ranges although there were fewer teachers in the youngest age category (20 to 29) which is similar to the findings from the research (see Appendix 13).

Table 6.5: Cross Tabulation of Teachers' Age Range and Schools in Portsmouth.

SCHOOL TYPE	AGE				Total
	21-30yrs	31-40yrs	41-50yrs	51-60yrs	
STATE	9 25.0%	8 22.2%	10 27.8%	9 25.0%	36 100.0%
INDEPENDENT	2 16.7%	3 25.0%	4 33.3%	3 25.0%	12 100.0%
TOTAL	11 22.9%	11 22.9%	14 29.2%	12 25.0%	48 100.0%

Table 6.6: Cross Tabulation of Teachers' Age Range and Schools in Abuja.

SCHOOL TYPE	AGE				Total
	21-30yrs	31-40yrs	41-50yrs	51 – 60yrs	
STATE	10 29.4%	19 55.9%	5 14.7%	0 .0%	34 100.0%
PRIVATE	40 23.4%	105 61.4%	24 14.0%	2 1.2%	171 100.0%
TOTAL	50 24.4%	124 60.5%	29 14.1%	2 1.0%	205 100.0%

Figure 6.3: Bar Chart Comparing Age Range of teachers and Types of Schools in Portsmouth.

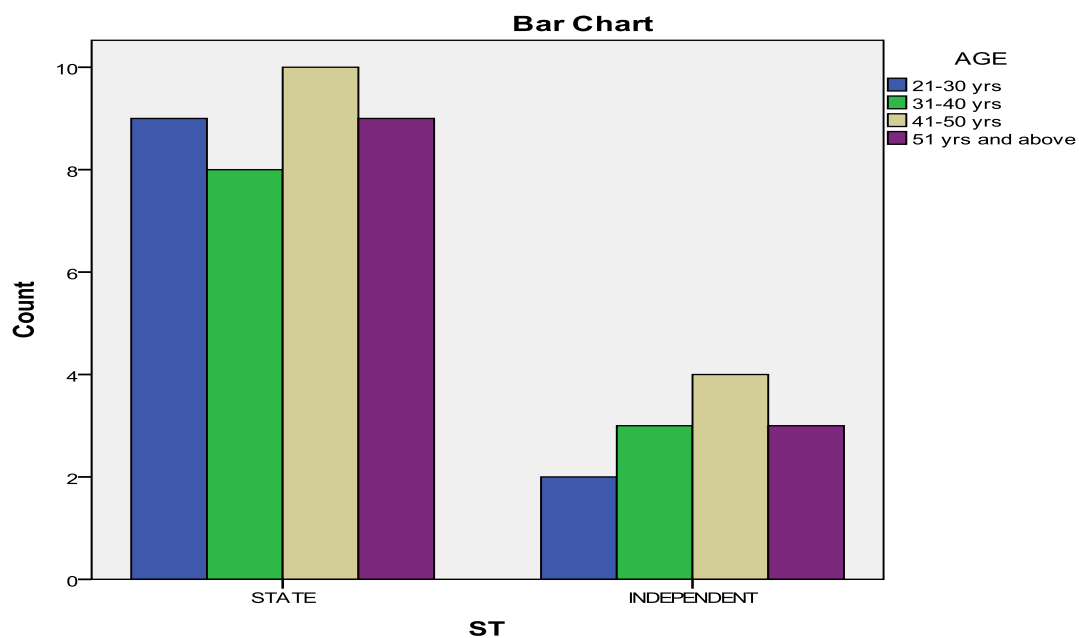
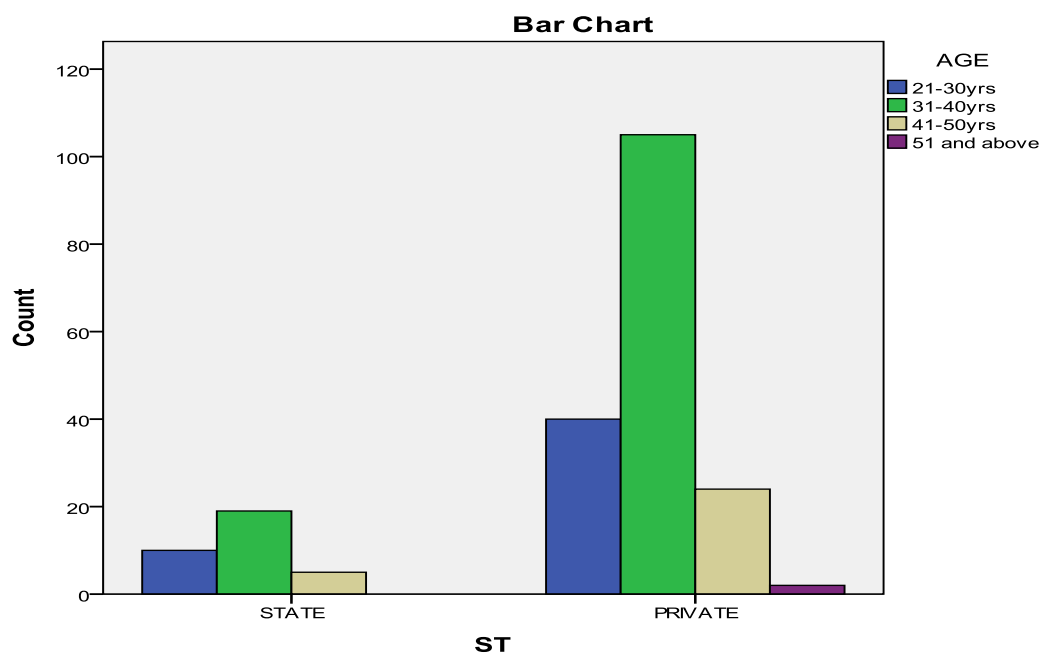


Figure 6.4: Bar Chart Comparing Age Range of teachers and Types of Schools in Abuja



6.4.4 Comparison of Teachers' Years of Experience in Schools

This is illustrated in Tables 6.7 and 6.8. The years of teaching experience are categorised according to teachers' professional phase according to Huberman's (1995) model, which was incorporated in the questionnaire (see Appendix 15). According to the findings, Portsmouth has a higher proportion of experienced teachers than Abuja. Some 14.6% of teachers in Portsmouth have between 31 to 40 years of experience, whereas no teacher in Abuja falls within this category. The majority of teachers in Abuja schools are within 7 to 18 years of experience. Independent schools have more teachers with 4 to 6 and 19 to 30 years of experience whereas state schools have the majority of teachers with 7 to 18 years of experience in Portsmouth.

Table 6.7: Cross tabulation of Years of Teaching Experience and Schools in Portsmouth.

SCHOOL TYPE	Years of Teaching Experience					Total
	1-3yrs	4-6yrs	7-18yrs	19-30yrs	31-40yrs	
STATE	4	8	12	7	5	36
	11.1%	22.2%	33.3%	19.4%	13.9%	100.0%
INDEPENDENT	0	4	2	4	2	12
	0%	33.3%	16.7%	33.3%	16.7%	100.0%
TOTAL	4	12	14	11	7	48
	8.3%	25.0%	29.2%	22.9%	14.6%	100.0%

Table 6.8: Cross tabulation of Years of Teaching Experience and Schools in Abuja.

SCHOOL TYPE	Years of Teaching Experience				Total
	1-3yrs	4-6yrs	7-18yrs	19-30yrs	
STATE	4 11.8%	12 35.3%	15 44.1%	3 8.8%	34 100.0%
PRIVATE	26 15.2%	60 35.1%	72 42.1%	13 7.6%	171 100.0%
TOTAL	30 14.6%	72 35.1%	87 42.4%	16 7.8%	205 100.0%

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Figure 6.5: Bar Chart Comparing Years of Teaching Experience in Portsmouth Schools

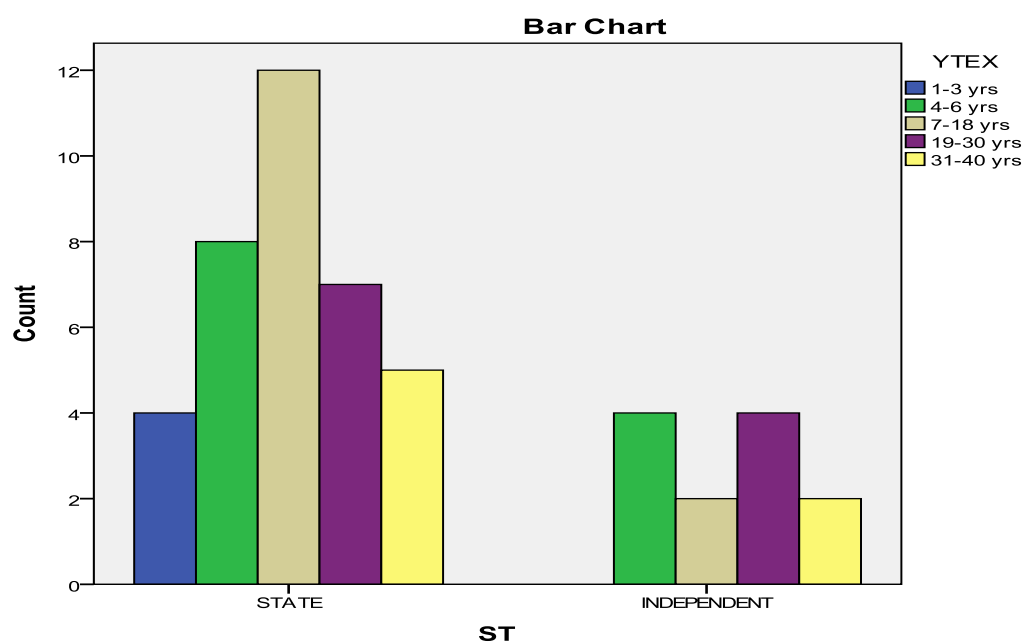
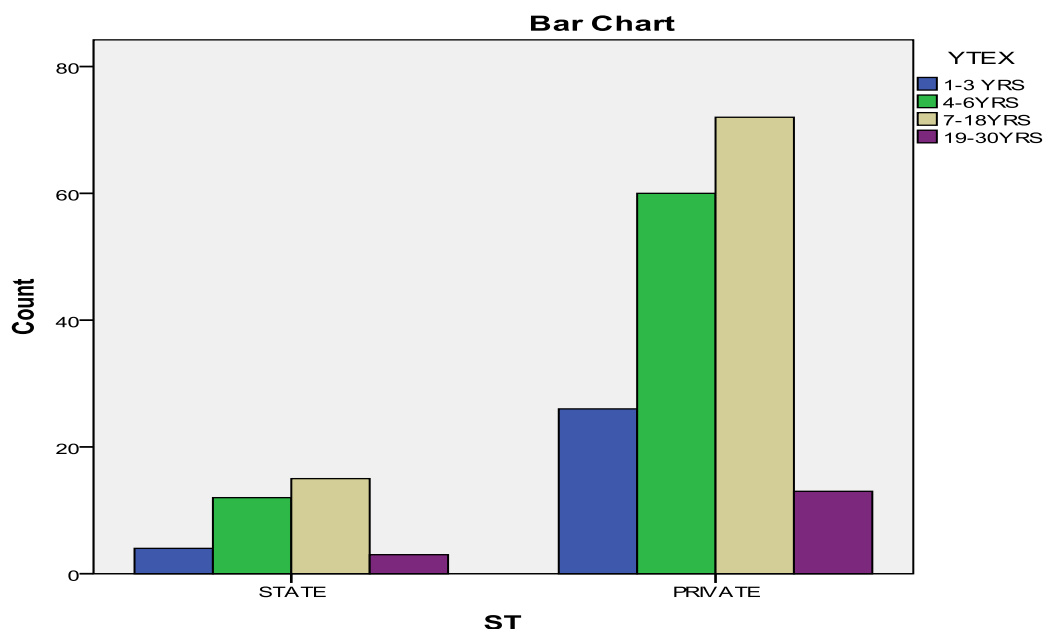


Figure 6.6: Bar Chart comparing Years of Teaching Experience in Abuja Schools



6.4.5 Comparison of Teachers' Length of Service in Schools

Tables 6.9 and 6.10 show the length of service of teachers in schools in both countries. The majority of teachers in Portsmouth (31.3%) have spent between 11 to 15 years in their schools, while the same proportion (i.e. 27.1%) have spent between 1 to 5 years and 6 to 10 years. 10.4% of teachers in Portsmouth have worked for 16 to 20 years in their schools whereas only two teachers (4.2%) have been there between 21 to 25 years. Independent schools have most of their teachers (41.7%), within the duration of 1 to 5 years while most state school teachers (36.1%) are within 11 to 15 years of service.

In contrast, teachers in Abuja have shorter periods of service in their schools compared to their counterparts in Portsmouth. The majority of teachers (73.7%) have between 1 to 5 years and only 8.8% have served for 11 to 15 years. Only one teacher from a state school has served for a period of 16 to 20 years and none was found within 21 to 25 years. A vast majority of teachers in private schools

(77.2%) and state schools (55.9%) have served between 1 to 5 years in their schools and this follows the same trend of lower proportions with higher length of years as shown in Figure 6.7 and 6.8.

Comparing both counties there is clear disparity in the length of years teachers spend in the schools. Whilst Portsmouth has more teachers who have spent 11 years and above, Abuja has a greater proportion of teachers with 1 to 5 years' service. State schools in Portsmouth have more teachers with longer years of service than independent schools which mirrors the findings in Abuja schools, although at a lower percentage.

Table 6.9: Cross Tabulation of Teachers Length of service and Schools in Portsmouth.

SCHOOL TYPE	LENGTH OF SERVICE					Total
	1-5yrs	6-10yrs	11-15yrs	16-20yrs	21-25yrs	
STATE	8 22.2%	10 27.8%	13 36.1%	3 8.3%	2 5.6%	36 100.0%
INDEPENDENT	5 41.7%	3 25.0%	2 16.7%	2 16.7%	0 .0%	12 100.0%
TOTAL	13 27.1%	13 27.1%	15 31.3%	5 10.4%	2 4.2%	48 100.0%

Table 6.10: Cross Tabulation of Teachers Length of service and School in Abuja

SCHOOL TYPE	LENGTH OF SERVICE				Total
	1-5yrs	6-10yrs	11-15yrs	16-20yrs	
STATE	19 55.9%	9 26.5%	5 14.7%	1 2.9%	34 100.0%
PRIVATE	132 77.2%	26 15.2%	13 7.6%	0 .0%	171 100.0%
TOTAL	151 73.7%	35 17.1%	18 8.8%	1 .5%	205 100.0%

Figure 6.7: Bar Chart Showing Comparison of Teachers length of service in Schools in Portsmouth

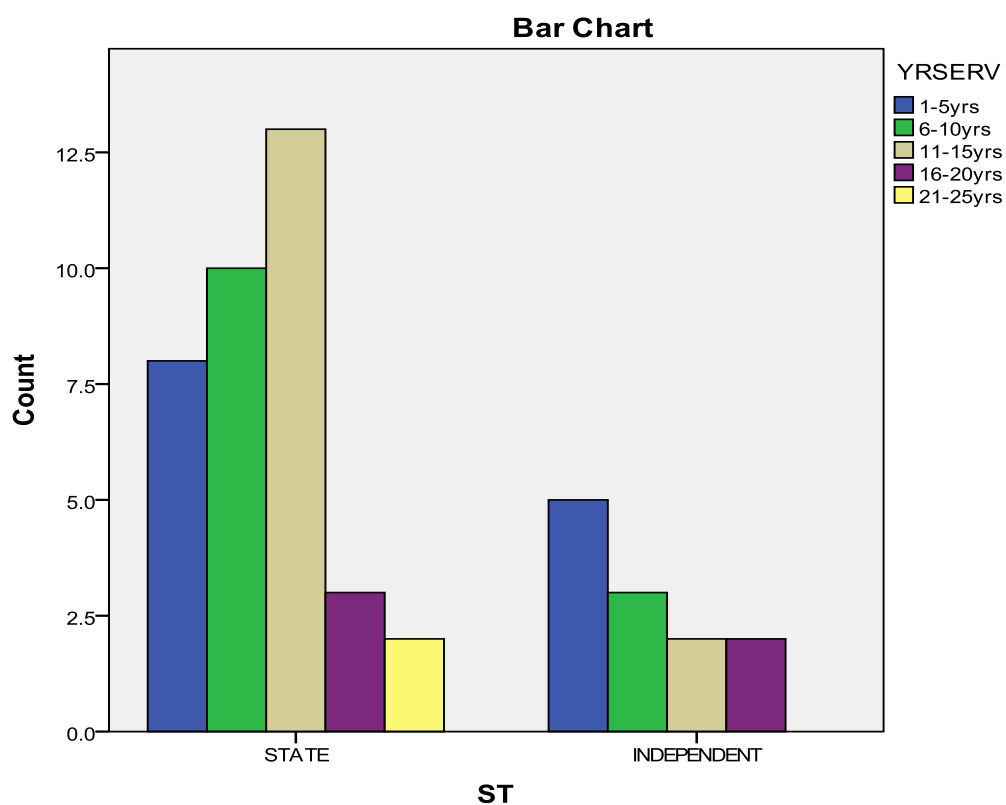
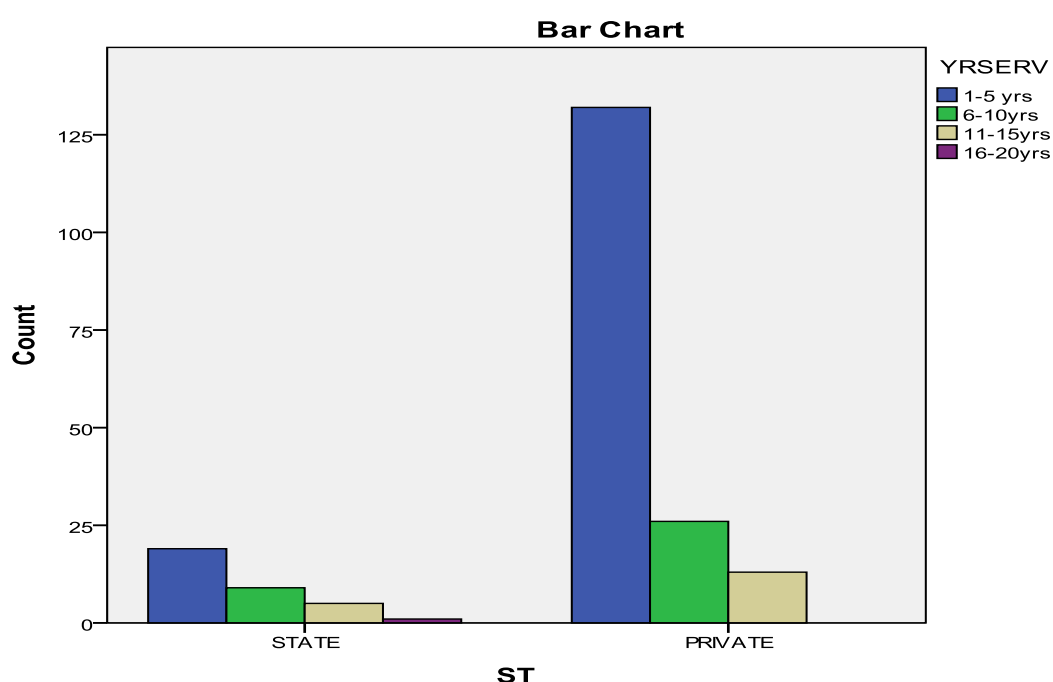


Figure 6.8: Bar Chart Showing Comparison of Teachers length of service in Schools in Abuja.



6.4.6 Reasons for Choosing Teaching as a Career

An open ended question was asked, in order to find out reasons why teachers participating in the study, chose the teaching profession. This is important because teachers' reasons for joining the profession may reflect on their attitude towards professional development (Macdonald, 1999). Responses provided by teachers in both countries were similar and have been categorised into six common themes. These are summarised in Figure 6.9.

The majority of teachers in both countries join the profession for intrinsic and altruistic reasons which include love for children and to make a difference or impart knowledge. Influence of role models seems to be a more prominent reason for teachers in Portsmouth than their counterparts in Abuja. Examples of role models mentioned include; previous teachers, friends and family.

Availability of teaching jobs and ease of entry into teaching was another reason mentioned by a smaller percentage of teachers in both countries. Statements within this category centred on; opportunities of admission into teaching or availability of teaching jobs. Some teachers in both countries found teaching as a

convenient job for the family. For example, some (female) teachers consider it as an opportunity to manage job and care for their own children because of suitable working hours, while others see it as an opportunity to be able to plan holidays in sync with their children.

A reason peculiar to Nigerian teachers was the fact that teaching was perceived as an opportunity to gain employment while awaiting a desired job especially when other jobs were not available. Some teachers in Abuja claimed that their reason for taking up teaching was because of a lack of employment opportunities in other desired professions. This is consistent with previous studies that claim some individuals go into teaching as a last resort when not able to get their job preference (Ajeyalemi, 2007; Ejei, 2005). None of the teachers in Portsmouth mentioned this as a reason for choosing to become a teacher (Appendix 18 shows the frequency of teachers' responses in both countries).

Motives for entering teaching are categorised into Extrinsic, Intrinsic Altruistic and Circumstantial reasons as illustrated in Figure 6.9. Altruistic reasons focus on making an impact on others without any personal benefit which is a key attribute of a profession as explained in chapter 3. Teachers motivated by altruistic reasons have a deep passion for teaching and a great desire to make a difference in the lives of their students (Low et al, 2011). Such teachers are more likely to be enthusiastic about their professional development. Intrinsic reasons are job related factors driven by individual interest and enjoyment in teaching (Thorton et al, 2002) while Extrinsic reasons are based on outward benefit or external influence (Younger et al, 2004; Philips and Hatch, 1999).

A fourth reason is circumstantial which includes individuals who never intended to be teachers, however, due a particular situation; they find themselves engaged in teaching. There are those who are temporarily engaged in teaching until they find a preferred job. Some teachers in Abuja admitted that their reason for getting involved in teaching was because they could not gain employment in a preferred job elsewhere, hence they perceived teaching as a job of convenience or due to their personal circumstance. Research shows some examples of circumstantial reasons including; career break or wanting to do something different. (Thorton et

al, 2002). It can be argued that such individuals may be less interested in professional development opportunities.

Overall, findings suggest that the majority of respondents in both countries opted for teaching due to altruistic and intrinsic reasons, while less indicated extrinsic reasons. Circumstantial reasons are only common with teachers in Abuja. This is illustrated in Figure 6.9 with some examples provided under each category.

Figure 6.9: Reasons for Choosing Teaching as a career

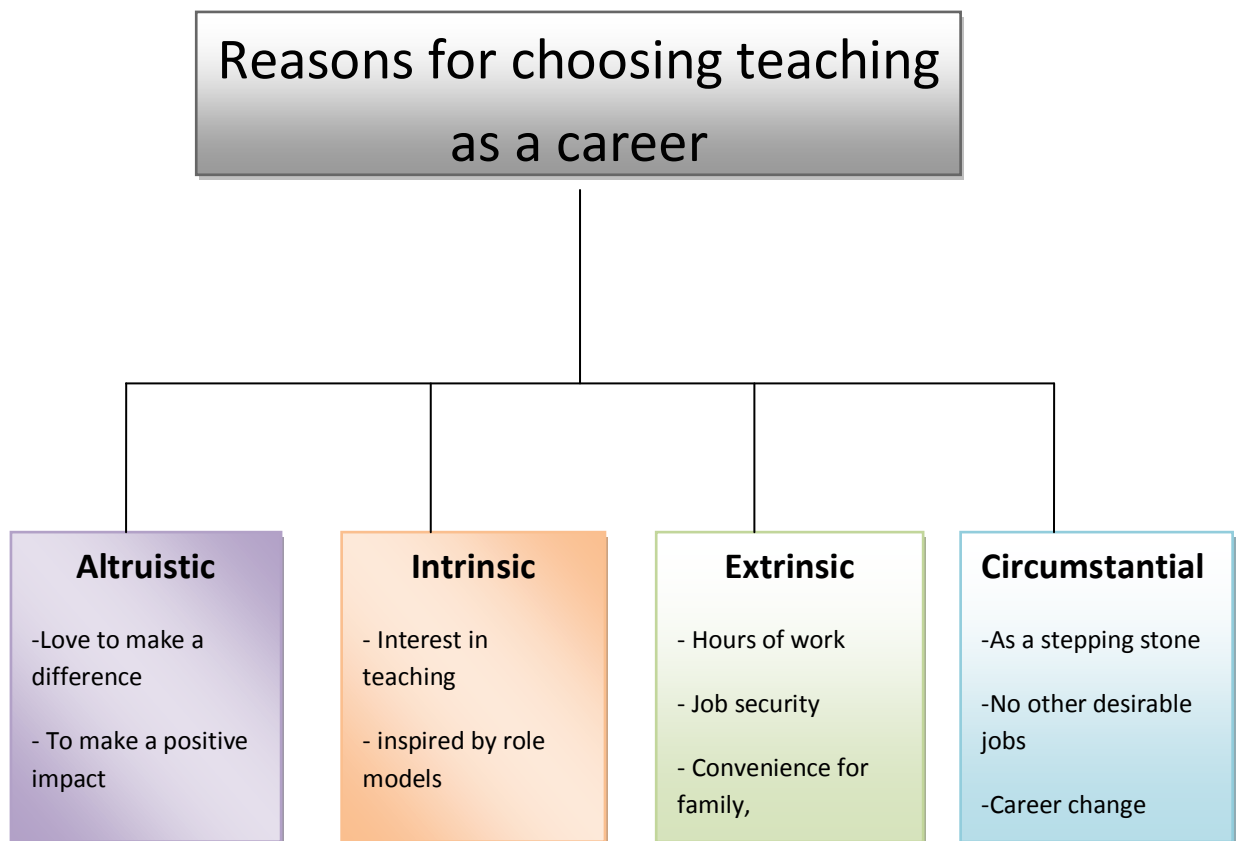


Table 6.11 gives a summary of the comparative analysis of teacher profiles in Portsmouth and Abuja indicating the similarities and differences between the two cohorts.

Table 6.11: Comparison of Teachers Profiles in Portsmouth and Abuja

Teacher Profile	Portsmouth	Abuja
Gender	Higher Female population Fewer Male (16.7%)	Higher Female Population More male (36.1%)
Age	Higher population of older teachers Age 41 to 60- (54.2%)	More younger teachers Age 21 to 40- (84.9%)
Teacher Qualification	State Schools B.Ed. -69.4% PGCE -25% Cert.Ed.- 2.8% Independent Schools PGCE -58.3% B.Ed. -33.3% Cert.Ed.- 8.3% SCITT -(2.8%)	State Schools NCE -47.1% BEd-35.2% PGDE- 11.8% Unqualified 11.8% Private Schools B.Ed.- 29.4% NCE -33.7% PGDE-18% Unqualified-13.5%
Years of Teaching Experience	Teachers have more years of teaching experience.	Teachers have less teaching experience
Length of service in Schools	There is a lower teacher turnover rate and better retention Majority have spent between 11 to 15 years Female have longer years of service than male	Teachers' turnover rate is higher with lower retention. Majority have spent between 1 to 5 years Female have longer years of service
Reasons for Teaching	Mostly Intrinsic and altruistic Fewer extrinsic	Mostly intrinsic and altruistic Fewer extrinsic Circumstantial reasons

6.5 ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEWS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

Whilst the interview transcripts were interrogated and particular attention paid to the key underpinning themes (see Figure 5.4), the questionnaires were analysed using PASW 18 and outputs generated from frequencies and cross tabulations are discussed.

6.5.1 Planning and Organisation of CPD

A key research question enquired about how schools plan CPD for teachers to ensure their quality and maintenance of professional status. The question was addressed mainly using interviews with headteachers and CPD leaders and documents from the schools. Planning seemed to be a fundamental aspect of CPD as perceived by most of the interviewees in Portsmouth. Deputy headteacher PS1, stated that one of the strengths of their system was ‘flexibility’ as they seek to avoid being too rigid when they plan and organise staff development.

“A lot of time is spent in planning as this is the key to any successful system...” (Interviewee PI2).

Many of the interviewees claimed that planning involved team work, including members of the senior management team and heads of key departments. Generally staff development needs are identified during performance review or staff assessment meetings. Pertinent to planning CPD was the school development plan (SDP), which was common to most schools in Portsmouth. They claimed that SDP was carefully considered when planning staff development and training so that it focuses on the core areas of need in the school. Most of the schools have CPD policies that guide staff development, and the interviewees acknowledged being aware of the National CPD policy.

As stated by a CPD coordinator in PS5,

“Our CPD policy is often guided by external pressures and government initiatives which are related to the SDP”.

He added that once new initiatives are introduced by the government, he ensured that teachers were trained to understand how to implement the initiatives. This concurs with the Brown et al, (2001) suggestion that, CPD should not only meet national priorities but also SDPs, which should be prioritised and directed towards the training needs of teachers.

One of such initiatives mentioned is the AfL⁹ which at the time of the research they were still in the process of learning. There is a general conception that AfL strategy is very effective in improving students learning. Three other schools (PS1, PS2 and PS4), attested to this and claimed that they specifically trained and updated their teachers on new initiatives so they were not left behind.

A CPD coordinator in PS6 stated that staff are given appraisal forms to fill in at the end of each school year, where they included their training needs, to enable the management to determine the type of training required. According to PS5 one such initiatives from the TDA, was that every teacher is entitled to 10% PPA¹⁰ time. As part of the planning towards teachers' professional development, all state schools observe five INSET days. Schools in Portsmouth have similar modalities in terms of planning of CPD activities which is a reflection of implantation of the national CPD strategy and guidance for schools in England. Most of the interviewees claimed that CPD planning was integrated into the schools development plans which are compulsory and CPD is organised during the term. State educated pupils are off school during INSET days in order to avoid distractions and make it more productive for teachers' development. Independent schools tend to concentrate their CPD activities outside of teaching terms.

In Abuja, state schools did not appear to have any specific coordinated system in place for their staff development. Although according to the National Policy on Education, teachers are expected to engage in in-service training throughout their career. It was obvious from the interviewees' responses that this is not implemented in most schools. All interviewees in state schools claimed that staff development programs depended on the government's budget and none of the schools had a CPD policy. Private schools seemed to give more priority to teachers' professional development. The majority of private schools in Abuja organise formal staff development programs at the beginning of the school year but others have them when the school is in session. A private school Interviewee

⁹ AfL-Assessment for Learning is a form of assessment practiced in classrooms where students already have an idea of the unit of study they are expected to learn.

¹⁰ PPA (Planning, Preparation & Assessment) time was introduced in 2005 to allow teachers in England to carry out planning preparation and assessment activities in order to relieve some of the existing workload pressures on them.

(AP3) claimed that the school had recently introduced a new policy which required every teacher to participate in monthly seminars and training programmes as part of the schools' strategy for teachers' professional development. According to the interviewee, this was a difficult step for the management as teachers were not used to such practices. However, it had become apparent it was necessary to improve teacher quality. This school in particular was one of the relatively affluent schools in the class B category. A private school (AP2) head teacher claimed that teachers' professional development was focused on areas of weakness or new developments and they sometimes engaged the use of external persons, either local or international. This shows some resemblance to Thompsons (2012), experience in an affluent school in Lagos state (former capital of Nigeria).

6.5.2 Teachers Perspective of CPD Awareness

Question 10 of the questionnaire enquired about teachers' awareness, understanding, and support received towards their CPD which is illustrated in Tables 6.12 and 6.13. Triangulating teacher's responses with the interviewees will highlight any corroboration or disparities in the findings.

The majority of teachers in both countries indicated that they have an understanding of CPD and are aware of their professional development needs. In Abuja, 92% of private school teachers agree they have an understanding of what CPD means and only 4% disagree. In state schools, 70% of teachers agree and 14% disagree to have an understanding of CPD. This suggests that a greater percentage of private school teachers show more understanding of CPD than teachers in state schools. In Portsmouth, 92% of teachers in the independent schools agreed while 100% in state schools agree to understanding the meaning of CPD.

In response to awareness of professional development needs in private schools, 84% of teachers in Abuja agreed, while 8% disagreed. In the state schools 91% were aware of their CPD needs while 9% were not. In Portsmouth, 97% of teachers in state schools and 100% in independent schools agreed they had been aware of their professional development needs.

In enquiring about teachers' awareness of CPD activities, 65% of teachers in private schools and 59% in state schools in Abuja agree that they are well informed about CPD activities, but 24% of teachers in state school and 22% in private schools remained neutral. In Portsmouth 58% of teachers in independent schools and 91% in state schools agree that they were well informed about available CPD activities but 41% in independent schools and 9% in state schools disagree. The majority of teachers in schools in Portsmouth claimed that they are involved in taking decisions regarding CPD, compared to about half of teachers in Abuja. This implies that teachers in Portsmouth have more involvement in deciding on CPD activities.

In terms of support towards CPD, findings indicate that in Abuja, 56% of teachers from state schools and 61 % in private schools agree to receive support from their schools, while 24 % in state schools and 34% in private disagree. This implies that the level of support from schools is fair in both state and private schools in Abuja although there seem to be more support from private schools. In comparison with findings from the interviewees, only a few private schools actually show some level of support towards teacher CPD as the majority claim they had limited autonomy and minimal support from the school proprietors towards staff professional development.

In Portsmouth, 98% of teachers in state schools and 84 % in independent schools agree they receive support from their schools towards professional development. This indicates the majority of teachers are well supported by the schools. Most of the interviewees however mentioned that additional financial support will be helpful with CPD planning and coordination. Support strategies for CPD could be in different forms ranging from moral support, financial support, engaging or involving teachers in planning, school ethos and good leadership. This is affirmed by studies (Smithers and Robinson, 2005; Gray, 2005; Brown et al, 2001) which emphasise the significance of school support strategies in planning and encouraging staff professional development.

In comparing the two countries, teachers in Portsmouth appear to receive more support from their schools than their counterparts in Abuja and in terms of government support, most of the respondents in state and private schools in Abuja

replied negatively although teachers in state schools claim to receive more support which is not surprising, given that private schools are not maintained by the government.

In Portsmouth, 61% of teachers in state school claim that they receive support from government towards CPD while 17% disagree. In the Independent schools, only 8% agreed and 59% disagreed while 33% remained neutral. This again is not surprising as state schools are maintained by the government, and teacher professional development has received considerable attention over the last two decades in England.

Table 6.12: Teachers' perception and experience of CPD activities in Portsmouth

CPD Activity	Frequency Of Responses / Percentage (%)									
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Not applicable	
School Type	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND
Have a clear understanding of what CPD means	25 (69)	3 (25)	11 (31)	8 (67)	0	0	0	0	0	1 (8)
Awareness of Professional Development Needs	15 (41)	3 (25)	20 (56)	9 (75)	1 (3)	0	0	0	0	0
Well informed about available CPD programs	10 (27)	0	23 (64)	7 (58)	1 (3)	4 (33)	2 (6)	1 (8)	0	0
Involved in deciding on CPD activities	13 (36)	5 (42)	20 (56)	5 (42)	0	2 (17)	1 (3)	0	2 (6)	0
School decides on participation in CPD programs.	8 (22)	0	25 (69)	10 (83)	2 (6)	2 (17)	1 (3)	0	0	0
Receives support from school	15 (42)	2 (17)	20 (56)	8 (67)	0	1 (8)	0	1 (8)	1 (3)	0
Receives support from government	5 (14)	1 (8)	17 (47)	0	5 (14)	2 (17)	1 (3)	5 (42)	8 (22)	4 (33)

Table 6.13: Teachers' perception and experience of CPD activities in Abuja.

CPD Activity	Frequency Of Responses / Percentage (%)									
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Not Applicable	
School Type	ST	PRI	ST	PRI	ST	PRI	ST	PRI	ST	PRI
Have a clear understanding of what CPD means	10 (29)	82 (48)	14 (41)	74 (43)	4 (11)	2 (1)	1 (3)	5 (3)	5 (15)	8 (5)
Awareness of Professional Development Needs	16 (47)	81 (47)	15 (44)	63 (37)	3 (9)	6 (3)	0	8 (5)	0	13 (8)
Well informed about available CPD programs	5 (15)	45 (27)	16 (47)	57 (33)	4 (12)	16 (9)	1 (3)	15 (9)	8 (24)	38 (22)
Involved in deciding on CPD participation	7 (21)	39 (23)	13 (38)	71 (42)	3 (9)	11 (6)	1 (3)	16 (9)	10 (29)	34 (20)
School decides on participation in CPD programs.	7 (20)	11 (6)	13 (38)	43 (25)	3 (9)	14 (8)	5 (15)	30 (18)	6 (18)	73 (43)
Receives support from school	3 (9)	36 (21)	16 (47)	68 (40)	7 (21)	36 (21)	1 (3)	22 (13)	7 (20)	9 (5)
Receives support from government	0	5 (3)	7 (21)	8 (5)	4 (12)	11 (6)	8 (23)	88 (51)	15 (44)	59 (35)

6.5.3 Types of CPD activities

Questions regarding types of CPD activities that teachers engaged in received responses from interviews and questionnaires. Most of the interviewees have a basic knowledge and understanding of CPD, although some of the Nigerian head teachers were not very familiar with the term or acronym even though they had an idea of what it meant based on the introductory brief by the researcher. While some of the Nigerian interviewees were more conversant with terms like in-service training and capacity building, all the English were familiar with the term CPD. This was taken into account during the interviews and in designing the questionnaire as explained in the methodology chapter. From the questionnaire teachers were asked to indicate which CPD activities they participated in more often and their responses are indicated in Table 6.13 and 6.14. The responses from both interviews and questionnaires are categorised according to different types of CPD activities.

i) Interviewees Responses

Most of the school heads in Abuja claim that teachers are mainly involved in in-house workshops, seminars, and staff training which took place mostly in house. Eleven of the interviewees in the private schools stated that they organise in-house training programs for their teachers even though a number of them claimed that they were not fully responsible for influencing decisions concerning staff development. An interviewee in particular school AP3 appeared to have more autonomy than most of the other interviewees, and was also involved in influencing decisions regarding their staff development. The awareness of CPD seemed to be much greater in his particular school compared to the others, possibly because of its international links and exposure to current developments in education. He claimed that the proprietor only showed up once or twice a week and allowed the management team to make suggestions which the school board ratifies. Training programmes and workshops are sometimes organised by private organisations, government bodies or resource persons according to head teacher AP3.

In Portsmouth, most of the CPD coordinators also mentioned in-house training and school based activities their teachers engaged in. Some common examples included; INSET days, workshops, seminars, and staff professional development meetings INSET days were introduced to enable teaching staff to train together in normal school time. Independent schools do not observe INSET days but they also train within the school but outside term times. As stated by an interviewee in an independent school in Portsmouth, (PI1);

“We don’t do the INSET trainings because we are an independent school. State schools do that but that wouldn’t work here for us because parents would not want it and more so we would rather do the training at the end of the term instead of sending the children home. It could be very disruptive for the school and for the teachers”.

This statement from an independent school CPD leader indicates some critique from the private sector regarding INSET days. The main argument seems to be based on ‘what parents want’. Customer satisfaction is considered pertinent in the private sector where fees are being paid and there is a competitive market in the society. In independent schools, there is greater involvement and expectation from

parents who pay the fees compared to state schools that are maintained by the government. State schools in England do not have a choice but to adhere to the government policy. A state school interviewee (PS3) mentioned that teachers are sometimes not very keen on INSET days especially when they are not interactive. This concurs with studies which suggest that teachers prefer to have interactive, brainstorming collaborative workshops than having INSET days foisted on them (Goodall et al 2005; Gray, 2005 ; Hustler et al, 2003; Cordingley et al, 2003; Brown et al, 2001). Interviewee (PS1), stated that teachers tend to be fairly intolerant when they simply 'sit down and listen' to either an invited consultant or a member of staff during INSET days.

In Nigeria, state schools do not have particular days dedicated to staff training , however two of the head teachers claimed that they sometimes engage in ad hoc staff training organised by the Ministry of Education. Private schools are more flexible in organising in house staff trainings on specific days, either before term begins or at the end of the term. Studies in Nigeria and England also indicate that in-house CPD activities including staff meetings, cluster teaching, mentoring, collaborative activities tend to be more common in schools than external CPD (Garuba, 2006; Tahir, 2005; Goodall et al, 2005; Villegas-Remiers, 2003; Brown et al, 2001). Preference for in-house activities could be attributed to perceived cost effectiveness, direct applicability and acknowledged expertise within the school as asserted by Harris et al (2006).

Mentoring seems to be more common in schools in Portsmouth than Abuja. This can be attributed to the fact that mentoring is part of the School based Initial Teacher Training program for graduates in England (e.g SCITT and GTP). Three of the interviewees in Portsmouth (PI2, PS3, and PS5) stated that experienced teachers mentor newly employed ones to enable them to have an understanding of the teaching practice and school policies. Most-schools in Abuja did not have any formalised programme for mentoring teachers, although two head teachers (AP3, AP8) claimed to engage new teachers in training and classroom observation as part of staff orientation since they come in with different teaching experiences.

Research Activities and Conferences are not very common forms of CPD in both countries. However two of the participants in Portsmouth (PI2 and PS4) and three

in Abuja (AP3, AP5 and AP12), claimed they had attended conferences although others claimed such opportunities were not very common. Conferences were not usually tailored towards teachers as stated by a CPD coordinator PS4. These two forms of professional development activities appeared to be the least popular amongst most schools in both countries.

Three head teachers in Abuja (AP3, AP4, and AP7) claimed that teachers who participate in any external workshops or training programs are expected to disseminate what they have learnt to others by organising a seminar and cascading their new knowledge to others within the school. This supports Steyn's (2010) findings amongst South African teachers, where a cascade model¹¹ is used as an effective way of learning from others. Since programmes organised externally are usually expensive, adopting this model may be cost effective especially for programs that are not easily assessable and quite expensive. An advantage of the cascade model according to Hayes (2000) is its cost effectiveness given that it uses teaching staff as co-trainers. He argues that the method of training should be experiential and reflective rather than transmissive to enable effectiveness and sustainability.

A contrary view, expressed by head teachers AP11 and AP9 is that cascading is not very effective as much information is lost during the process of disseminating knowledge gained from the workshop. In addition, head teachers stated that investing in CPD may be a wasted effort especially where there are high turnover in schools, and teachers use it as an advantage to apply for teaching jobs in other schools. This was peculiar to Abuja given the competitive nature of private schooling.

Most CPD coordinators in Portsmouth appear to share similar views about participation in external CPD activities which echoes findings from head teachers in Abuja, although for different reasons. Interviewees in Portsmouth tend to focus more on accessibility practicability and cost effectiveness. As stated by a state school CPD coordinator;

¹¹ Cascade model of training involves training a small group who then pass on what they know to the rest of the workforce

“Teachers prefer something more practical and interactive than going out to attend courses where they will just be talked to” (PS1)

This seems to be a general perception about externally organised CPD activities (Goodall et al, 2005; Brown et al, 2001).

With regards to academic qualifications some head teachers in the private schools in Abuja claimed that some teachers engaged in part time programs with NTI (National Teachers Institute) and higher education institution in order to upgrade their qualifications as explained in chapter four. Higher academic qualification did not seem to be popular with teachers in Portsmouth as a means of professional development as PS1 and PS5 claimed very few teachers enrolled on post graduate program.

Individual research via Internet was identified as a means of professional development particularly in three schools in Abuja. According to the interviewees, (P3, AP6, and AP11) teachers were encouraged to browse the internet to research on key areas of interest and relevant information to their career. Only three of the schools that had internet access considered this as a form of professional development although head teacher AP6 claimed most teachers found it challenging, due to constraints of lack of time, general lack of interest and enthusiasm and incompetence in ICT skills. As the majority of schools in Abuja do not have internet access, schools which provide internet for their staff tend to encourage them to maximise the opportunity. In Portsmouth only one of the interviewees mentioned the use of internet as a form of personal development although it is available.

ii) Teachers’ responses to participation in different CPD activities

This is shown in Tables 6.15 and 6.16. In-house training, mentoring and collaborative activities were the most common types of CPD activities in private schools in Abuja with the highest rating of ‘every term’. Interestingly, the activities rated termly in private schools are all school based. In state schools, the majority of teachers rated participation in in-house training as occasional and collaborative activities within the school as every session, while mentoring is

most often rated every term. This shows that private schools engage teachers more often in school based CPD activities compared to state schools.

Portsmouth, 50 % of teachers in the independent schools and 78% in the state schools claim that they participate in in-house training every term. Most headteachers confirmed that this was one of the common CPD activities teachers participated in. In-house collaborative activities was rated by, 50% of teachers in independent schools as 'occasional' while 42% of teachers in state schools claimed it was a termly activity, implying that state schools engage teachers more often in collaborative activities within the school than independent schools. This suggests that state schools in Portsmouth engage more in in-house training than independent schools.

Mentoring appears not to be very common in independent schools as 50% of teachers rated 'never', while 42% claimed it was occasional, which agrees with interviewees' response that teachers are only mentored when necessary. The majority (44%) of teachers in state schools considered mentoring as occasional while 25% claimed had never been engaged in mentoring. This also indicates mentoring is not very common in state schools in Portsmouth although it is more frequent than in independent schools which are consistent with findings from the interviews in PI1, PS3 and PS5. Whilst teachers in Abuja consider mentoring as a frequent activity, most of the interviewees claimed not to engage in much mentoring, which inconsistent with the teachers responses. Also, interviewees in Portsmouth claim that mentoring was a regular practice especially with newly qualified teachers, while teacher's response shows it is occasional.

In Abuja, attending external training and collaborative activities with other schools was mostly occasionally, and this was mirrored in independent and state schools in Portsmouth. This indicates that participating in collaborative activities with other schools is not a very common practice in either country. The majority of teachers in both countries claimed to have participated in conferences occasionally. In Portsmouth, 64 % of teachers in state schools and 50% in independent schools claim to participate in conferences occasionally whereas in Abuja 50% of teachers in state schools and 46% in private schools do so. This

however seems to correspond with the interviewees' view about rare participation in conferences.

A high proportion of teachers in both countries had never participated in higher education courses or research projects, although surprisingly, teachers in Abuja seemed to show a higher degree of participation. In Portsmouth, about 50% of teachers in state schools and 75% in independent schools claimed they had never undertaken any research projects while 75% of teachers in independent schools had never undertaken a higher academic qualification program. In Abuja, 45% of teachers in private schools had never undertaken a research project and 49% never enrolled in a higher academic qualification program. This may be due to lack of awareness, or possibly because all teachers in Portsmouth are qualified, hence they may not need a higher qualification. Higher education programs in Abuja often undertaken in the University or teachers institute are mostly for the purpose of upgrading.

Findings suggest that schools in both countries focus more on CPD activities that are school based than on external ones like research projects and higher education courses. This agrees with previous studies and findings, which suggest that most schools engaged more in in-house activities since they were more participatory and inclusive than external ones (Pedder and Opfer, 2011; Goodall et al, 2005; Brown et al, 2001).

Table 6.14: Teachers Participation in CPD activities in Portsmouth

CPD Activity	Frequency Of Responses / Percentage (%)							
	Every Term		Every Session		Occasionally		Never	
	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND
In house training	28 (78)	6 (50)	8 (22)	2 (17)	2 (6)	3 (25)	0	1 (8)
External training	11 (31)	0	6 (17)	3 (25)	18 (50)	8 (67)	1 (3)	1 (8)
Educational conferences	2 (6)	0	5 (14)	2 (17)	23 (64)	6 (50)	6 (17)	4 (33)
Group activities with colleagues within the school.	16 (44)	4 (33)	6 (17)	2 (17)	10 (28)	6 (50)	4 (11)	0
Activities with colleagues in other schools.	4 (11)	0	5 (14)	1 (8)	23 (64)	5 (42)	4 (11)	6 (50)
Mentoring.	5 (14)	1 (8)	6 (17)	0	16 (44)	5 (42)	9 (25)	6 (50)
Accredited higher education courses	3 (8)	1 (8)	2 (6)	0	20 (56)	2 (17)	11 (31)	9 (75)
Research project	1 (3)	1 (8)	1 (3)	0	16 (44)	2 (17)	18 (50)	9 (75)

Table 6.15: Teachers Participation in CPD activities in Abuja

CPD Activity	Frequency Of Responses / Percentage (%)							
	Every Term		Every Session		Occasionally		Never	
School Type	ST	PRI	ST	PRI	ST	PRI	ST	PRI
In house training	11 (32)	75 (44)	5 (15)	29 (17)	13 (38)	57 (33)	5 (15)	10 (6)
External training	1 (3)	22 (13)	11 (32)	41 (24)	15 (44)	85 (50)	7 (21)	22 (13)
Educational conferences	4 (12)	14 (8)	5 (15)	30 (18)	17 (50)	79 (46)	8 (24)	48 (28)
Group activities with colleagues within the school.	11 (32)	82 (48)	13 (38)	17 (10)	6 (18)	60 (35)	4 (12)	12 (7)
Activities with colleagues in other schools.	4 (12)	19 (11)	11 (32)	24 (14)	14 (41)	75 (44)	5 (15)	53 (31)
Mentoring.	15 (44)	71 (41)	6 (18)	21 (12)	7 (21)	48 (28)	6 (18)	30 (18)
Accredited higher education courses	3 (9)	12 (7)	9 (26)	12 (7)	11 (32)	64 (37)	11 (32)	83 (49)
Research projects	6 (18)	19 (11)	9 (26)	10 (6)	13 (38)	65 (38)	6 (18)	77 (45)

6.5.4 CPD Effectiveness

Enquiry about effectiveness of CPD was addressed by the interviews and questionnaires. As explained in chapter 4, measurement of effectiveness is variable as individuals may have different interpretations of effectiveness. Most of the respondents found in-house workshops or training more effective than other forms of CPD. Perceptions about effective CPD activities are very similar in both state and independent schools in Portsmouth. According to a state school (PS1) respondent, activities which are practical and interactive are more effective. Examples mentioned include in-house workshops and collaborative activities. An independent school respondent (PI2) supports school based trainings which focused on specific areas of need that will impact on teachers' skills and improve

students' learning. Effectiveness is also perceived by respondents PS4 and PI1 as activities that are in line with the school priorities according to the SDP.

In Abuja, a private school (AP8) headteacher stated that;

“Effectiveness cannot really be associated to any particular activity as there could be other contributing factors which one may not be conscious of. I can't really say, because effectiveness is difficult to measure.

Another respondent in a private school (AP3) stated;

“I think every professional development activity is important and should be effective if it focuses on improving the teacher and the students”.

The majority considered effective CPD to be relevant to the needs of the teachers, school and mostly students. Hence, CPD that directly impact on students learning and performance would be considered priority in most schools. Responses of interviewees in Abuja were similar to those in Portsmouth although most of the state schools in Abuja did not make any specific comments to this question. According to Brown et al (2001), that effective CPD must be relevant to classroom practice.

i) Teachers' perception of an Effective CPD.

To find out teachers perception of an effective CPD, in an open ended question, teachers were asked to describe what they considered to be an effective CPD activity, and responses are summarised under three categories, as summarised in Figure 6.12. The responses from teachers in Abuja indicate that perceptions of effective CPD are mainly based on the impact on teachers and students rather than the school. The majority of teachers considered an effective CPD to be one which improved teachers' knowledge, skills and professional status. Others suggested that effective CPD should expose teachers to new innovations and development in teaching, learning and classroom management. Some stated that the source of the CPD should be well recognised and accredited to ensure its effectiveness. According to the findings, most descriptions of effective CPD were centred on its impact on the teacher more than the student or the school.

Teachers in Portsmouth held similar views, and focused on impact on the teacher. A common view was that an effective CPD program should be practicable and

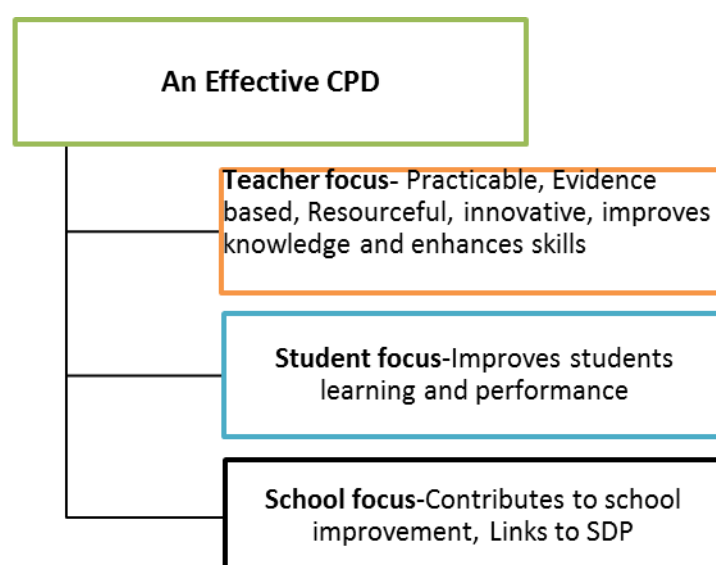
achievable; the activity should not be vague or unclear but applicable to practice. Findings suggest that teachers prefer activities that can be put into practice and use. Some teachers suggested new initiatives while others considered that an effective CPD activity should be resourceful, interactive and evidence based. According to teachers' perspective, an effective CPD should;

Improve knowledge, enhance skills, be practicable, applicable, evidence based, resourceful and include new initiatives and ideas.

Some of the suggestions of effective CPD focussed on students. Most respondents in both countries suggested that effective CPD should improve pupil's performance and learning. This shows that teachers look for evidence of students' outcomes, to determine the effectiveness of CPD. More responses focused on teachers' professional development than on students' performance. Some teachers in Portsmouth stated that effective CPD should reflect the school development plans and also address the schools' needs. None of the teachers in Abuja associated effectiveness of CPD with the school.

Generally, teachers' perception of an effective CPD is focused mostly on their professional practice, and students learning and less on the school. It is important to note that measurement of effectiveness is variable as individuals may have different interpretations of effectiveness. Teachers' perceptions about an effective CPD summarised in Figure 6.12.

Figure 6.10: Teachers Perception of an Effective CPD



ii) Effectiveness of different types of CPD Activities

Table 6.16 and 6.17 shows teachers' responses to the effectiveness of listed types of CPD activities. The researcher's perception of effectiveness of an activity is inclined towards being able to achieve the aims and objectives and having an evident impact on whom it is focused on. Teachers having stated their views about an effective CPD activity are asked to rate different activities based on their judgement of effectiveness. Effectiveness is ranked in five categories based on the degree of effectiveness according to the Likert scale, from very effective to not effective. CPD activities were rated based on teachers' view of how effective they are.

Teachers in state and private schools in Abuja considered in-house training, collaborative activities within the school and mentoring in both schools very effective, while higher education courses, research activities and conferences were rated very effective in private schools only. Interestingly the three activities rated very effective by teachers in Abuja were school based. These same activities were rated quite effective by teachers in state and independent schools. Portsmouth, as no activity was designated very effective. This may be due to the fact that individuals have different perceptions and judgements of what they consider as very effective, which could be influenced by personal, social or cultural

perspectives. Teachers' perception of an effective CPD seemed quite similar and is illustrated in Figure 6.10. Teachers tend to place more relevance and value on school based activities which re-emphasises the importance attached to school based activities as suggested by findings from the interviews and previous studies (Garuba, 2007; Gray, 2005; Goodall, 2005; Cordingley et al, 2003; Brown et al, 2001). However, it is surprising that conferences, higher education courses and research activities are rated very effective by teachers in private schools in Abuja considering that they were mostly rated in terms of participation as occasional or never.

External training and collaborative activities were considered quite effective by teachers in both schools in Abuja while higher education courses, conferences and research activities were designated quite effective only in state schools. In Portsmouth, external training and external collaborative activities were only rated by teachers in state schools.

Activities rated as somewhat effective imply they are not very effective. This was indicated by only by teachers in Portsmouth as shown in table 6.16 which include; research activities, external training and external collaborative activities in independent schools, higher education courses in state schools and conferences in both schools. These CPD activities are rated lower than others possibly because they are not very common in the schools or are actually perceived as not very effective. An important characteristic of these activities is that they are all externally organised which is a common indication as previous findings suggest (Goodall et al, 2005; Brown et al, 2001) Teachers tend to find external activities less effective than internal or school based ones as stated by interviewees in Portsmouth.

Teachers in both state and independent schools in Portsmouth rated research activities as non-applicable. There is no significant difference between state and independent schools, in both countries except for a few disparities with external trainings and activities which state schools consider more effective than independent schools.

Teachers' view of CPD effectiveness in Nigeria seems quite different from those of England probably due to their different perception of effectiveness which is not

unusual in comparative studies across different socio-cultural contexts (May, 2001; Heidenheimer et al, 1990). In Abuja, none of the activities were rated as 'somewhat effective', 'not effective' or 'not applicable' as most were either 'very effective' or 'quite effective'. In contrast, whilst no activity was rated 'very effective' in Portsmouth, most activities were rated 'quite effective', 'somewhat effective' and only two were 'not applicable'. Although findings indicate that teachers have similar views on what an effective CPD activity should be, their perceptions and understanding about effectiveness of actual CPD activities seem different. This is illustrated in Tables 6.16 and 6.17, which show how teachers in both countries have rated effectiveness of CPD activity.

Table 6.16: Teachers views on Effectiveness of CPD Activities in Portsmouth

CPD Activity	Frequency Of Responses / Percentage (%)									
	Very Effective		Quite Effective		Somewhat Effective		Not Effective		Not Applicable	
Type of School	State	Ind	State	Ind	State	Ind	State	Ind	State	Ind
In house training	15 (42)	3 (25)	17 (47)	7 (58)	4 (11)	2 (17)	0	0	0	0
External training	7 (19)	1 (8)	22 (61)	5 (41)	6 (17)	5 (42)	1 (3)	0	0	0
Educational conferences	3 (8)	0	14 (39)	4 (33)	16 (44)	5 (42)	0	1 (8)	3 (8)	2 (17)
In-house collaborative activities	13 (7)	4 (33)	18 (50)	7 (58)	3 (8)	1 (8)	2 (5)	0	0	0
External Collaborative activities	5 (14)	1 (8)	14 (39)	3 (25)	11 (31)	5 (47)	1 (3)	1 (8)	5 (14)	2 (17)
Mentoring	7 (19)	2 (16)	14 (39)	6 (50)	8 (22)	2 (17)	1 (3)	0	6 (17)	2 (17)
Higher academic qualifications	4 (11)	0	10 (28)	3 (25)	12 (33)	2 (17)	4 (11)	3 (25)	6 (17)	4 (33)
Research projects	3 (8)	1 (8)	6 (17)	3 (25)	10 (28)	3 (25)	2 (6)	2 (17)	15 (42)	3 (25)

Table 6.17: Teachers views on Effectiveness of CPD Activities in Abuja

CPD Activity	Frequency Of Responses / Percentage (%)									
	Very Effective		Quite Effective		Somewhat Effective		Not Effective		Not Applicable	
Type of School	State	Private	State	Private	State	Private	State	Private	State	Private
In house training	13 (38)	73 (43)	10 (29)	71 (42)	9 (27)	12 (7)	0	6 (4)	2 (6)	9 (5)
External training	7 (21)	63 (37)	13 (38)	78 (46)	11 (32)	21 (12)	0	2 (1)	3 (9)	7 (4)
Educational conferences	8 (23)	65 (38)	14 (41)	64 (37)	6 (18)	31 (18)	3 (9)	5 (3)	2 (6)	6 (4)
In-house collaborative activities	16 (47)	69 (39)	10 (29)	76 (44)	5 (15)	21 (12)	3 (9)	3 (2)	0	2 (1)
External Collaborative activities	4 (11)	44 (26)	14 (41)	72 (42)	10 (29)	31 (18)	6 (18)	12 (7)	0	12 (7)
Mentoring	19 (56)	76 (44)	9 (26)	58 (34)	6 (18)	30 (18)	0	4 (2)	0	3 (2)
Higher academic qualifications	11 (32)	58 (34)	14 (41)	46 (27)	8 (24)	31 (18)	1 (3)	24 (14)	0	12 (7)
Research Projects	11 (32)	51 (30)	14 (41)	38 (22)	6 (18)	29 (17)	3 (9)	30 (18)	0	23 (14)

iii) Impact of CPD - Question 15 of the questionnaire sought to elicit teacher's perceptions and views on the impact of CPD activities on three key areas (i.e teachers, students, and schools). Most teachers in the two countries had similar views regarding the impact of their participation in CPD. According to Tables 6.17 and 6.18, the majority of teachers in state and independent / private schools in Abuja and Portsmouth agree that engaging in CPD activities would improve their professional status, teaching skills and attitudes. No significant difference was found between state and independent/private schools in both countries regarding the impact of CPD on the teacher. In fact the majority of teachers in

both countries show agreement on the impact on both teaching skills, and professional status. In Portsmouth however, 86% of teachers in state schools but only 53% in independent schools agree that CPD impacted on teachers' attitudes. Teachers' responses in both countries, on the impact of CPD on students' performance was positive. In Abuja, over 90% in both state and public schools agree on the impact of CPD on both students and the school. In Portsmouth there was agreement of 83% in independent school and 91% in state school regarding the impact on students' performance but only 72% of teachers in the state school and 42% in independent schools agree that CPD will impact on the school's reputation. Generally, the majority of teachers in state and private / independent schools in the two countries have similar perceptions about the impact of CPD activities on teachers' skills, professional status, students' performance and school reputation which are similar to their responses on the effectiveness of CPD.

Table 6.18: Teachers Perception of impact of CPD activities in Portsmouth

Participating in CPD activities will Impact on										
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Not applicable	
	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND
Professional Status	27 (79)	119 (70)	7 (21)	45 (26)	0	3 (2)	0	2 (1)	0	2 (1)
Teaching skills	29 (85)	106 (62)	5 (15)	58 (34)	0	4 (2)	0	1 (1)	0	2 (1)
Teacher's attitude	25 (73)	98 (57)	7 (21)	61 (36)	2 (6)	8 (5)	0	3 (2)	0	1 (1)
Students' performance	23 (68)	101 (58)	9 (26)	58 (34)	2 (6)	5 (3)	0	1 (1)	0	6 (4)
School reputation	27 (79)	119 (70)	7 (21)	45 (26)	0	3 (2)	0	2 (1)	0	2 (1)

Table 6.19: Teachers Perception of impact of CPD activities in Abuja

Participating in CPD activities will Impact on										
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Not applicable	
	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND
Professional Status	27 (79)	119 (70)	7 (21)	45 (26)	0	3 (2)	0	2 (1)	0	2 (1)
Teaching skills	29 (85)	106 (62)	5 (15)	58 (34)	0	4 (2)	0	1 (1)	0	2 (1)
Teacher's attitude	25 (73)	98 (57)	7 (21)	61 (36)	2 (6)	8 (5)	0	3 (2)	0	1 (1)
Students' performance	23 (68)	101 (58)	9 (26)	58 (34)	2 (6)	5 (3)	0	1 (1)	0	6 (4)
School reputation	27 (79)	119 (70)	7 (21)	45 (26)	0	3 (2)	0	2 (1)	0	2 (1)

6.5.5 Evaluation of CPD

Enquiry regarding CPD evaluation was obtained from the interviews and questionnaire and findings from teachers responses are illustrated in Tables 6.19 and 6.20.

i) Interviewees Responses- This question focused on how or whether CPD is evaluated in schools. Most of the interviewees in the two countries asserted that evaluating the outcomes of CPD was not very easy. While some interviewees claimed they had specific methods of evaluation others were not really explicit as to how they went about determining the impact of CPD. A state school CPD coordinator in Portsmouth (PS6), stated that evaluation depends on the type of training received, and that teachers have to constantly reflect on the purpose of the training and how it is to be implemented. This implies that if the training is based on a specific area, evaluation will focus on how the training undertaken has impacted upon the area. By so doing, evaluation will be meaningful and have a measurable outcome.

Another interviewee in Portsmouth (PS2) claimed that evaluation is done over a period of time as it was difficult to determine the impact of a programme in the short term. PI1 acknowledged there was no exact format for evaluation; however, teachers were expected to keep record of any CPD activity they have been involved in. Others in PI2, PS1 and PS3 claimed that teachers are sometimes given questionnaires to complete after engaging in CPD activities to elicit their views about the programs and its usefulness.

A deputy head teacher stated that,

“Some impact are long term, others are not measurable except it is quantifiable which is difficult. I think it all depends on the type of CPD. Some of them may have to take a couple of years to determine the impact” (PS2).

CPD coordinator PS2 in state school in Portsmouth stated that impact was not very measurable, although efforts were made to evaluate some of the CPD activities. Common examples of evaluation in the English schools were; performance management, staff assessment and appraisal, reflective logs and professional development portfolios and classroom observation. Reflective logs

were a record of what the teachers had been involved in and their reflection on what had been learnt. Interviewees in PI2 and PS5 claimed they asked teachers to fill in evaluation forms to know how they felt about the program or activity.

A study on teacher CPD amongst primary and secondary schools in England by Browne et al (2001), found that questionnaires and evaluation forms were frequently used methods of evaluating the impact of CPD. Even though there was no tangible evidence, most of the interviewees believed that effective CPD activity will have an impact on the teacher's competence, the school's reputation and students' performance. According to Brown et al (2001), teachers found it difficult to make a link between the CPD activity and any impact on teaching and children's learning or performance. Although they acknowledged that CPD improved teaching and learning, there was no clear evidence of its impact. Observing students' performance is sometimes a means of evaluating CPD if the activity is specially focused on students.

In the Nigerian schools most of the interviewees did not have a clear understanding of evaluation of CPD. Two of the private schools head teachers', (AP8, AP14) claimed they carry out evaluation based on the type of activity undertaken often through classroom observation or reports by the teachers. A head teacher of AP5 stated that evaluation was based on the ability of the teacher to transfer what they have learnt from the CPD programme to the other teachers, which can only be measured after a period of time. None of the state school interviewees mentioned any particular method of evaluating CPD activities as they had no system in place for monitoring staff. Most of them claimed evaluation was not a common practice. This may be a reflection of a lack of accountability in the state school system in Nigeria.

Professional development activities like higher education programs are not easily evaluated since the impact may not be quite obvious and is usually more beneficial to the individual. Based on the interviewees' responses there appears to be a clearer and more organised approach to evaluation in the schools in Portsmouth than those in Abuja. As supporting evidence, three of the schools in Portsmouth (PI2, PS3 and PS5) provided documents of evaluation including sample of questionnaire, portfolios and staff CPD records. A headteacher

mentioned that CPD has to be reviewed and valued regularly, to ensure that innovations and ideas are relevant to teachers' needs

ii) Teachers views on Evaluation of CPD

Question 15 and 16 of the questionnaire (see Appendix 6), sought to find out teachers views regarding CPD evaluation. Comparing the two countries, findings indicate some similarities again in teachers' views. According to teachers in Abuja, questionnaires, students' performance and class room observation were the most frequently used methods of evaluation in state and private schools. This was mirrored in Portsmouth although to a smaller extent as indicated in Tables 6.20 and 6.21. The majority of teachers in Abuja and Portsmouth state schools claimed to have been evaluated with questionnaires but only half in private and independent schools. The majority of teachers in Abuja claimed that students' performance was used as an evaluative tool whereas a lower percentage, in Portsmouth schools agreed. Whilst three quarter of teachers in state / private schools in Abuja agreed that classroom observation is used as a method of evaluating CPD activities, about half of teachers in state / independent schools Portsmouth agreed. Comparing both countries, teachers responses regarding classroom observation and students' performance as methods of evaluation, show a higher percentages in Abuja than Portsmouth. This does not concur with the interviewees claim in Abuja especially in state schools, where most head teachers stated that evaluation was not a common practice and hardly mentioned any examples of methods used for evaluating CPD activities.

The use of documents and reports and reflective logs are not very common methods of evaluation in Abuja and Portsmouth as reflected in Tables 6.20 and 6.21. Surprisingly, disparities emerged between the views of teachers and interviewees particularly in Abuja. Whilst CPD evaluation seemed uncommon according to head teachers in Abuja, a higher percentage of teachers in both schools indicated that evaluation was carried out using questionnaires, classroom observation and students' performance. Only three of the interviewees in private schools mentioned occasional use of classroom observation, evaluation forms and reports as a means of evaluation, which does not agree with the teachers claim.

Table 6.20: Teachers' responses to methods used for Evaluating CPD in activities in Portsmouth.

Frequency Of Responses / Percentage (%)						
Methods of Evaluation	YES		NO		Not Applicable	
School Type	ST	IND	ST	IND	ST	IND
Questionnaires	27 (75)	6 (50)	8 (22)	6 (50)	1 (3)	0
Reflective logs	7 (19)	2 (17)	25 (69)	9 (75)	4 (12)	1 (8)
Students performance	15 (42)	6 (50)	15 (42)	6 (50)	6 (17)	0
Collection of documents and reports	13 (36)	5 (42)	18 (50)	7 (58)	5 (14)	0
Classroom observation	19 (53)	7 (58)	14 (39)	5 (42)	3 (8)	0

Table 6.21: Teachers' response to Methods Used for Evaluating CPD activities in Abuja

Frequency Of Responses / Percentage (%)						
Methods of Evaluation	YES		NO		Not Applicable	
School Type	ST	PRI	ST	PRI	ST	PRI
Questionnaires	25 (74)	85 (50)	3 (9)	68 (40)	6 (17)	18 (10)
Reflective logs	9 (27)	39 (23)	17 (50)	81 (47)	8 (23)	51 (30)
Students performance	27 (80)	101 (59)	3 (9)	47 (27)	4 (12)	23 (14)
Collection of documents and reports	16 (46)	72 (42)	13 (37)	69 (40)	6 (17)	30 (18)
Classroom observation	26 (76)	124 (73)	4 (12)	29 (17)	4 (12)	18 (10)

6.5.6 Motivation towards CPD participation.

One of the research objectives was to identify what motivates teachers to participate and undertake CPD activities. This question was addressed by the interviews and questionnaires. There was some similarity in the responses from interviewees and teachers in both Portsmouth and Abuja.

i) Interviewees Responses- Whist some interviewees had a notion that motivation should be an individualistic decision propelled by a personal conviction, others felt that teachers needed to be motivated and supported and encouraged towards their professional development. A private school Head teacher (AP5) in Abuja said that motivation towards professional development was rather difficult as teachers are motivated by different factors. She claimed that some teachers were more interested in pay rise or salary increase and rewards while others were focused on developing their career which depended on their reason for going into teaching.

According to the headteacher of a private school AP7;

“Motivating teachers towards their professional development is one of those issues you can’t legislate. People need to be convinced and constantly encouraged and motivated to understand the relevance of CPD which cannot happen overnight...”

This implies that teachers need to be personally convinced and understand the importance of professional development before they can be motivated. Interviewees in two private schools (AP7 and AP12) stated that a way in which teachers are motivated is by commending and recognising the progress of others who have undertaken an award bearing CPD or professional qualifications, often personally funded. They considered this as a form of incentive and motivation for others to enrol for a higher education programme or professional development training which is individually sponsored (especially if followed up with pay rise). Five of the private school heads supported this as a motivation strategy, as they felt salary increase is a major incentive for most teachers.

As for state schools in Abuja, head teachers AS2 and AS4 felt teacher motivation towards professional development was the responsibility of the government as one

of the key factors affecting teachers in the public sector was the conditions of teaching. AS1 added that the society's perception of teachers as a low status profession is quite demotivating and demoralising. Head teacher AS4 in agreement, stated that state school teachers were particularly looked down upon by the public which also boils down to the role of the government in enhancing the teaching profession.

In Portsmouth, interviewee PI2 stated that a way to motivate teachers is to constantly encourage them. Constant encouragement and reemphasising the impact and usefulness of CPD seems to be a vital approach adopted by some of the schools in motivating their teachers as asserted by private school head teachers in Abuja (AP5, AP7 and AP12). Interviewees in state schools (PS2 and PS4) suggest that the best way to motivate teachers towards CPD is to let them understand its usefulness to their practice. A state school interviewee (PS4) added that a brief insight into the benefit of the programme will motivate them to be involved.

Findings from Portsmouth suggest that motivating teachers is more about encouraging teacher to understand the purpose of CPD rather than providing them with incentives. Salary increase seemed more of an issue in motivating teachers in Abuja than Portsmouth where undertaking a CPD program does not necessarily lead to salary increase. (It is important to note that the type of CPD referred to here is the award bearing or higher education qualification). It can be argued that there is a limit to how much effort a headteacher can put in to motivate teachers towards their professional development, if teachers are not really interested.

ii) Teachers Perception on Motivation

Question 17 was open ended, therefore elicited various responses from teachers regarding what motivates them to engage in CPD activities. Teachers' in both countries have similar views regarding motivation towards CPD which shows consistency in the frequency of occurrence. This could imply the level of priority of the reasons stated Table 6.21 shows the categorisation according to descending order of responses.

Improvement of teaching skills and knowledge acquisition seemed to be key motivating factors (with the highest frequency) for the majority of teachers in both countries. These are intrinsic factors which are influenced by individual interest in activity. Some other motivating factors mentioned by teachers in Portsmouth include; activities that are geared towards career development, new initiatives and easily accessible activities. Knowledge and relevance of the content is an important motivating factor for teacher.

Other points mentioned include; should be recognisable for employability, enhance career development, and incorporate new initiatives. Some stated that they are often motivated by the relevance of the material to be addressed especially when it is related to their needs and interests. It is therefore not surprising that the majority of teachers indicated that they were motivated by the CPD activities that focused on the content or relevance of information, skill enhancement and knowledge acquisition. A peculiar motivating factor stated by Nigerian teachers was training which led to promotion or has an implication for a pay rise, which concurs with the interviewee's suggestion of what might motivate teachers to undertake CPD. None of the teachers in Portsmouth considered pay rise as a motivation towards undertaking CPD.

Table 6.22: Comparison of Motivating factors towards CPD participation

Motivating Factors	Teacher's responses	
	Abuja	Portsmouth
Acquisition of Knowledge and improvement of skills	65	19
Improvement of professional status and career growth	49	13
Personal interest in content	34	6
Accessibility	23	3
New initiatives and innovations	19	4
Pay rise, promotion	12	0
Reputation of Organisers	3	3

6.5.7 Constraints and Limitations

Responses regarding constraints of CPD participation were obtained from interviews and open ended questions in the questionnaires. Findings from schools in both countries are compared and categorised based on common responses from the interviews and questionnaires. Table 6.22 categorises the limitations based on the frequency of responses from the teachers. Similarities and peculiarities identified in both countries are illustrated in Figure 6.11. The key issues are;

i) Financial Constraint- Financial constraint is a common limitation in both countries as most CPD activities like courses, training programs, workshops and external trainings incur costs and are thereby demanding on school budgets. Private /independent schools are privately funded while state schools are funded by the government. All schools are expected to have budgets for staff development and training however this is dependent on other factors like the school management, income, school ethos and priorities, major projects or capital expenditure.

As stated by an independent school interviewee (PI2);

“Money, money, money, has always been our challenge. There never seems to be enough funding for staff development”

While the majority of the Nigerian interviewees claimed ignorance of the budgets or allocation towards staff development and training, most of the CPD teachers in English schools were aware of the budget for staff development.

A head teacher in a state school in Abuja (AS3) with some sarcasm, stated that;

“I am not aware of any budget or funding for staff training”

The majority of interviewees in state schools in Abuja claimed there was hardly any support from the government towards teacher training and development, which is perceived as rather demoralising for the teachers.

ii) Time-Time for engaging in professional development activities was another common challenge indicated by most interviewees in both countries. Due to the demand and nature of teaching, creating extra time outside the normal working

hours was a major challenge and is often resisted by many teachers according to a state school interviewee (PS 4).

As a CPD coordinator commented,

“Finding the right time for teachers’ professional development is one of our challenges as a school”....PS2.

State school Interviewee (PS 2), claimed that finding suitable cover for the time spent during CPD activities was not always guaranteed. Another interviewee in PS1 said that some of the passionate teachers were more interested in ensuring that their students did not miss out on work rather than to go on a training programme themselves.

Some of the Nigerian private schools (AP1, AP3, AP4, and AP6) stated that as a result of time constraint during school term, they only engage in professional development activities for teachers when students are on holiday. This was also confirmed by state school head teachers. In contrast, a private school head teacher in Abuja (AP8) found it ‘unreasonable’ to organise training activities during holidays, given that holidays were meant for teachers to rest and relax. Most English schools also expressed the same view about organising staff training during holidays. Gray (2005) claims that teachers considered holidays as a time to recover from the busy work during the term or to care for dependants. Provision of a variety of courses at different times throughout the years to accommodate different preferences is suggested as a panacea for teachers to be able to attend courses or trainings at a convenient time. Also, from the teacher’s perspective, insufficient time due to the workload was a common factor affecting most teachers in both countries towards engaging in CPD. This was the second most common issues with teachers in the two school types which concur with the interviewees claim.

iii) Attitude-Teachers’ attitude was a major issue identified by the interviewees. Head teachers AP2, AP4 and AP9, claimed that a fundamental problem with most teachers is that they have a nonchalant attitude towards their professional development. Head teacher AP9 suggested that teachers’ lackadaisical attitude was probably due to the fact that some teachers do not consider teaching as a core profession hence do not see the need to develop themselves in their career. Head

teacher AP4 affirmed that many current teachers use teaching as a ‘stepping stone’ to other more highly rated jobs due to the low status of the teaching profession in Nigeria. An encounter narrated by the head teacher (AP4), who claimed to have employed an engineering graduate, who was willing to teach mathematics at primary level, eventually resigned after a few months as he gained employment in a ‘preferred professional engineering job’. It is obvious that some people use teaching as a stepping stone to pursue their career. This implies an attitude of lack of genuine interest in teaching for some individuals which may affect the interest of such individuals towards professional development in teaching and possibly their attitude.

In the state schools, teachers’ attitude to work was a major problem especially in state schools. This appeared to be a ‘hard nut to crack’ because of the appalling conditions of service and in a system where people get away with a lot of inadequacies like absenteeism, and a general lackadaisical attitude to work. Most Head teachers in state schools attested to this problem and found this rather worrying considering the expectations of teachers in the country.

Head teacher (AS2) claimed that constant training and organising of CPD activities with the wrong set of people having a wrong attitude would be a waste of time.

According to another head teacher AS1, many teachers in state schools exhibited a lack of commitment to their job and a poor sense of accountability. Head teacher (AS1) stated that;

“Many of the teachers just act as they like, come to work or call in sick anytime and one cannot really take any serious action because they cannot be sacked. That commitment and accountability is lacking in many of the teachers in state schools though there are still some genuine and committed ones. It is really difficult to change people if they are not willing”...

In Portsmouth, two of the interviewees, PS2 & PI1 stated that some teachers attitude sometimes indicate a lack of interest in professional development. In comparison with Abuja, the problem of teacher attitude regarding accountability, absenteeism and general misconduct, did not appear to be an issue in the schools in Portsmouth. Also this was only mentioned by the interviewees who seem to be more concerned about teachers’ attitude, affecting their interest in CPD.

iv) Accessibility and Awareness-Accessibility to, and awareness of available CPD programs is an issue common within some schools as indicted by headteachers and teachers in both countries. Two of the interviewees in Portsmouth (PS3 and PI1) stated that variety of courses and training programs are usually available in major cities like London, which required travelling. Another head teacher PS2 claimed the school always received fliers and was notified about various training programs. Head teachers in state schools in Abuja, however, claimed ignorance of available and relevant CPD programs, while head teachers of private schools (AP7, AP8, and AP13) admitted that there were more opportunities in bigger cities. It can be argued that accessibility and awareness of CPD programs can impact upon participation in training activities. This possibly contributed to why in-house activities tend to be more common amongst most schools.

v) Competitive rivalry amongst schools- This was a peculiar problem in Abuja private schools given the competitive market existing in the private sector. Most private schools have a closed culture and are not very open with regards dissemination of information or general interaction as the researcher noted during the field work. Head teacher AP5 stated that this issue had really plagued the education system in Abuja as high competition exists amongst schools which hinder interaction and collaboration of ideas.

According to a private school head teacher, the closed culture of many private schools does not give room for effective collaboration between schools in Abuja.

Other interesting comments by interviewees from private schools are as follows;

“Schools in Abuja do not like to share with each other, especially private schools. They try to hide any knowledge they have which could be beneficial to others. If schools practice a culture of sharing knowledge I believe things will be better” (AP9).

“The closed culture is a major cankerworm in the school system. I believe in knowledge sharing and learning from each other. However, I find it really devastating that most private schools within Abuja are so cold towards each other. When one tries to get close you are treated as if one is trying to steal their students or teachers, especially the so called ‘big schools’ (AP 6).

These comments indicate a feeling of discouragement, disenchantment and unhealthy rivalry amongst schools which affects the collegial and collaborative interaction towards professional development. This may be attributed to the

competitive market and expansion of private schools in Abuja as discussed in chapter two.

An interviewee in a Portsmouth (PS3) mentioned that head teachers within the state schools have a good network and communicate well via emails, passing on any relevant information or making enquiries where necessary. Admittedly, the respondent mentioned that state schools do not have a very good rapport with the independent schools except where there is some common interest. An independent school head teacher claimed to relate well with other schools within the same network of independent schools which they belonged to, and also asserted that they rarely interact with state schools which may be attributed to the fact that they compete for different markets. Whilst independent schools are focused in the few high class categories, state schools aim for the majority mix of the social class. Although this was not stressed by any of the interviewees in the independent schools, one cannot deny the fact that some level of competition may exist given that they are a profit making education venture. Contrary to the situation in Abuja, state schools in Portsmouth are in competition for pupils and teachers given that the majority of school age population are schooled in the public sector as explained in chapter two. This particular issue was only mentioned by the interviewees possibly considering the management's point of view.

vi) Government Policies-This was more common with schools in Portsmouth according to interviewees and teachers. Some of the CPD coordinators in the state schools, (PS2, PS4 and PS5) in Portsmouth mentioned that teachers sometimes lose interest in professional development because of too many changes and developments in government policies regarding education, particularly those that directly or indirectly affect teachers (as discussed in chapter two).

As stated by a state school CPD coordinator PS4,

“There is so much to take on board and there isn't just time to settle down and implement some of the ideas learnt. Also, there is so much to take in and constantly there is always something coming up. A continuous influx of information and legislation from the government can be overwhelming for teachers and the school management.”

Whilst this constraint seemed to be more common in the English schools, none of the Nigerian schools considered it as an issue. Incessant changes in government

policies, has received much attention and criticisms in the last two decades as explained in chapter two. This coincided with findings from teachers in Portsmouth.

vii) Age Factor and Family Issue- In Abuja, Private school head teachers (AP1, AP7 and AS3) mentioned that older teachers were less interested in professional development. Interviewees in Portsmouth, (PS1 and PI2) also agreed that the age factor sometimes serves as a barrier towards professional development of teachers, and claimed that older teachers tend to be less enthusiastic about their professional development.

In addition to this, respondents in private schools (AP1 and AP4) claimed that female teachers especially those that are still involved in child care, were often busy with family responsibilities, therefore find it difficult to engage in professional development activities which are time consuming. This implies a high number of older teachers and young female teachers in a school will affect involvement in CPD activities.

Head teachers (AP5, AP7 and AP11) in Abuja claimed that trying to encourage older teachers to engage in certain types of professional development activities was sometimes a difficult task.

viii) Teacher attrition and turnover rate- This was one of the major challenges peculiar to private schools in Abuja. Head teacher AP9, claimed that investing in teacher training and development was not very beneficial to the school due to the high turnover rate. She claimed that the majority of teachers that undergo some form of training or have gained experience move to other schools and then the whole process of training begins again. This was identified by other private schools (AP2, AP4, AP11, AP12, and AP15) who considered it discouraged investment in training teachers who do not stay long enough to implement knowledge gained. This issue was especially common in the private sector in Abuja, where competition existed amongst the schools for the best teachers unlike state schools, with poor quality of teachers and hardly any competitive markets amongst schools. Teacher turnover and attrition did not seem to be a problem with schools in Portsmouth as teacher turnover was low, and retention was good as stated by most of the interviewees.

ix) Lack of resources, infrastructure and poor working condition- A key problem faced by state schools in Nigeria according to the majority of state school interviewees, is the lack of basic infrastructure and resources, working conditions and salary issues. Infrastructure and basic resources, classroom, furniture, text books, and instructional materials were lacking in most of the state schools in Abuja as observed by the researcher during the field work. Teaching in such conditions is quite challenging as stated by one head teacher. This is evidenced from previous studies in Nigerian (Oni, 2011; Adebayo, 2009; Ajayi, 2007; Ogiegbaen, 2005). None of the interviewees in Portsmouth mentioned this as an issue for the schools.

The poor working conditions and teachers' welfare are contributing factors that affect teachers' morale towards professional development. Most of the state school interviewees expressed displeasure about delays in payment of salaries and allowances. State school head teachers (AS1 and AS2, AS3) claimed that teachers' welfare and general working conditions are not encouraging which affects their enthusiasm towards professional development. According to an interviewee AS2, professional development is secondary considering the major issue of unpaid salaries and allowances.

A state school head teacher stated that;

If teachers' salaries and allowances are not paid on time, how will you talk to them about attending a workshop or maybe enrol for a professional development programme. (Head teacher AS3)

In Portsmouth, none of the interviewees in state or independent schools mentioned this as a problem probably because there is a better welfare system in England.

ix) Parental Support- This was pointed out by state school interviewees in both countries. Head teachers AS1 and AS3 in Abuja affirmed that lack of parental support and interest in their children's progress in state schools was disheartening and also contributed to teacher's poor morale in state schools. Head teacher AS1 stated that a high percentage of parents, who are mostly lower class citizens, did not show interest in their children's education which invariably affects teachers' morale towards professional development. This was not a problem in the private schools as parents tend to show more interest in their children's learning which

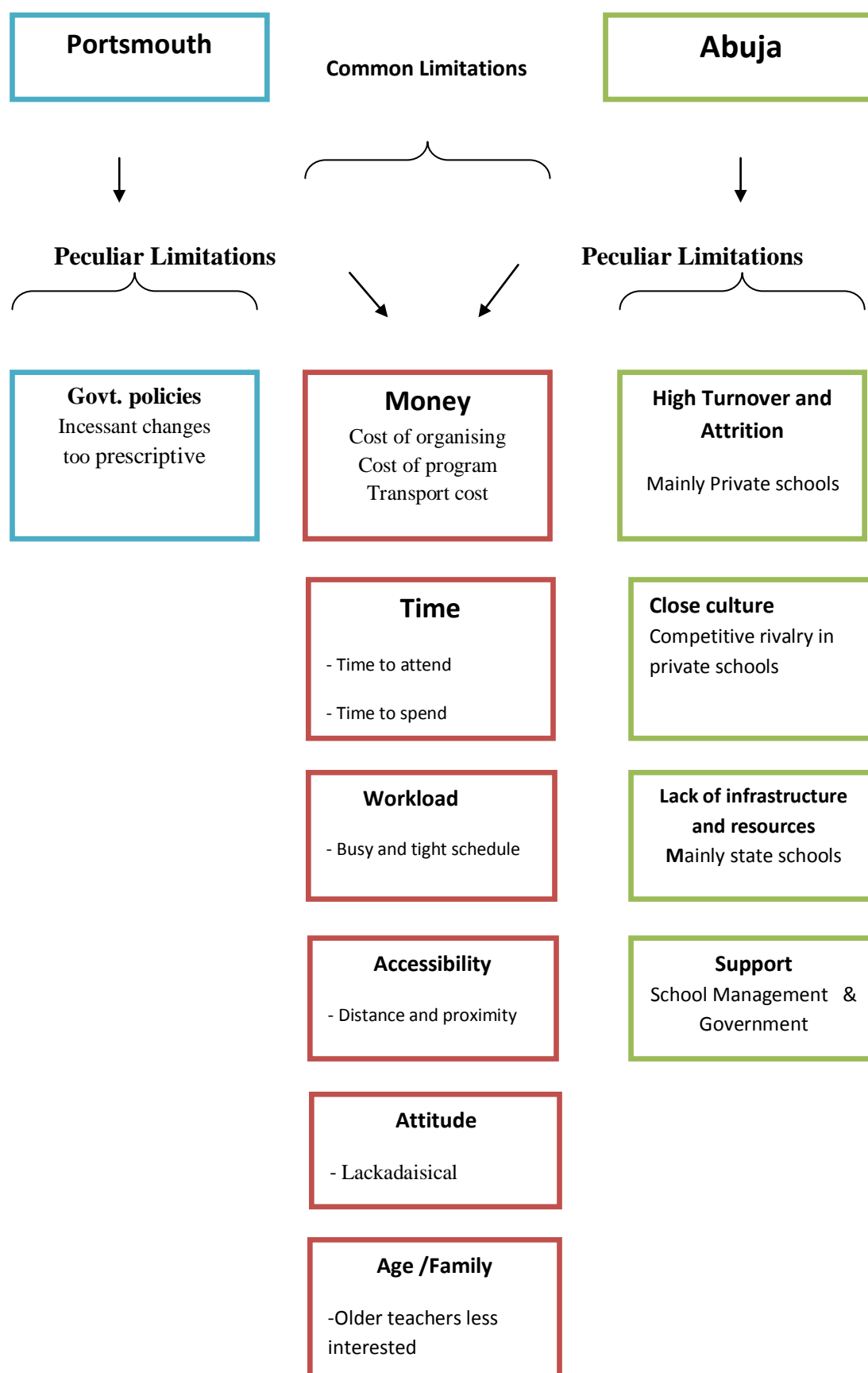
encourage teachers to improve themselves professionally. Two interviewees in state schools in Portsmouth (PS3, PS6) also stated that parents in their schools did not show much concern about their children's learning which invariably discourages teachers from making efforts towards their professional development which could in turn improve the children's performance. This can be attributed to the fact that parents pay fees in private schools and want to ensure value for money whereas in the state schools parents probably take free education for granted since they have no financial commitment.

Table 6.23: Teachers' Limitations in CPD participation

Limitations and Constraints	Number of teachers	
	Nigeria	Portsmouth
Lack of Money / funding	168	32
Time	124	26
Excess Workload	35	16
Lack of Resources and infrastructure	19	0
Accessibility/Location	14	9
Awareness	12	6
School Management support	11	4
Family Responsibilities	6	3
Government policies	0	3

(*Note that most teachers stated more than one limitation hence the number of responses indicated may not correspond to that of the overall participants).

Figure 6.11: Limitations to CPD in Portsmouth and Abuja



6.5.8 Transferable Best Practices

One of the aims of the research was to identify any transferable good practice or innovations adopted by any of the schools in the survey which may be helpful in establishing an effective framework and improve the quality of teachers CPD in Abuja. This is mainly based on the interviews which elicited some vital information. Some practices identified are:

i) SDP and CPD policies: Most Portsmouth schools had SDP and CPD policies which guided staff development including the priorities, the mode of evaluation and issues that underpin effective CPD. This is fundamental in establishing a framework for CPD.

ii) Parents Involvement: Some schools in Portsmouth organise workshops for interested parents to inform them of innovations and new developments relating to teaching and learning. An example is a new mathematics strategy for numeracy introduced in a state school where manuals were developed for parents to enable them to help their children with homework. Also in an independent school, a phonics workshop was organised for parents to help and encourage children to read. This will help in carrying parents along in their children's learning and also be aware of developments in the curriculum.

iii) Whole School Professional Development Ethos: School governors in Portsmouth were also engaged in some form of training for a better understanding of their role and responsibilities as governors. They were also enlightened about key initiatives and developments regarding teaching, learning and staff development. This encourages and promotes an ethos of professional development within the school.

iv) Collaborative Partnerships: Some schools engage in professional development meetings with other local schools and organise joint collaborative activities amongst the teachers and children. A private school (AP5) in Abuja was involved in a partnership programme with other schools in Africa and England, which is claimed to be very useful in terms of borrowing ideas and organising exchange visits. A state school (AS1) head teacher in Abuja claimed to have been involved in an exchange visit to England which was sponsored by the British Council. Some of the interschool activities included inter school quizzes and sports

competition which involved children in both the state and private schools. According to a Portsmouth interviewee (PS2), there is a network of head teachers who constantly communicate and send relevant information on key issues and professional development opportunities. Where there is a joint interest, some of the schools team up together to buy in a resource person or sponsor an expensive training program which is an excellent way of enhancing collaboration and collegiality amongst teachers.

v) Cascade Training Model: To ensure sustainability, some schools in both countries adopt a cascade model of CPD. This is done during Professional Development Meetings (PDM) where teachers who have undertaken any external training or workshop will brief others on the outcome and relevance of the programme.

vi) Staff Involvement: Another practice adopted by one of the state schools in Portsmouth, was involving staff through portfolio teams to come up with ideas by getting involved in planning professional development initiatives, exploring issues and coming up with action plans or solution to the challenges. Each group will have a leader, who gives feedback on the outcome of the meetings to the management team. Phase teams also have team leaders who meet to discuss making an input in the schools strategic plan. This promotes a culture of professional development in teachers and makes them feel more involved and valued which will improve their attitude towards CPD.

6.5.9 Professional Development Initiatives and priorities

The researcher sought to find out about initiatives and priorities regarding teachers' professional development in different schools. The question was directed to the interviewees and it was observed that schools in Portsmouth and Abuja had quite different priorities and areas of development. Given that schools in the two countries were at different levels of advancement, the types of innovations and professional development priorities were distinctive in each country. Some of the new initiatives mentioned by the interviewees in Portsmouth include Learning platform Initiatives / VLE (Virtual learning Environment), AFL (Assessment for Learning), and National Literacy and Numeracy strategy. These were government led initiatives supported by the Department of Education which

most of the schools professional development needs were based upon. VLE is a learning platform initiative that supports e-learning, giving teachers the ability to share multimedia files, such as videos, audio, transfer of documents to students to support effective teaching, learning and management (Jewitt et al, 2010).

Most schools in Abuja did not have access to the internet which was a limiting factor in developing ICT skills amongst the teachers. This was, therefore, a priority in many of the Nigerian schools. There is however, a major challenge of obtaining constant power supply and internet access in Abuja schools placing a huge demand on schools to provide alternative source which is often very expensive. For two of the relatively affluent private schools, the use of multimedia facilities incorporated in teaching, were recent initiatives in professional development. Other initiatives adopted by some of the private schools include; learner centred approach to teaching, montessori methods, adopting phonics to improve reading, and developing teaching aids. None of the state schools interviewees mentioned any new initiatives as they were still backward in terms of development and rather focused on creating a conducive learning environment that would support initiatives for professional development.

Comparing the responses from the state school with the private schools in Abuja there seems to be a huge disparity in terms of the focus, needs and priority which is underpinned by the support and management system within the schools. This is quite different from the schools in Portsmouth where both school types have similar needs most of which were initiatives supported by the government. This highlights the differences between government support towards education and teachers professional development in the two countries. In addition the disparity in professional development initiatives and priorities is a function of the stages of development of the countries and also the categorisation, ethos and location of the schools.

Enquiring about teachers 'professional development needs and areas of interest was carried out using open ended questions which elicited some interesting findings. Some of the professional development needs common to both countries include; ICT skills, behaviour management, leadership and management development and Special education needs. From the findings, ICT skills appeared

to be the most common, reflecting the importance of information technology in 21st century education, followed by behavioural management which is a vital attribute for a teacher.

Some areas of interest peculiar to teachers' in Portsmouth included: teaching philosophy, thinking skills, AFL (Assessment for Learning), VLE (Virtual learning Environment), Financial Management, and NPQH (National Professional Qualification for Headship). In recent years research in England indicates that AFL strategies have been claimed to be effective in improving pupils learning and they help to raise pupils' achievements significantly (Black et al, 2006).

Some of the professional development needs peculiar to teachers in Abuja include child psychology, use of internet and multimedia in teaching, Interactive whiteboards and e-learning, most of which are technology based. It is obvious that CPD priorities and initiatives in Portsmouth and Abuja are quite different and may not be transferable given that the two countries are at different stages of economic, social and technological development and therefore have different needs. It is therefore pertinent to consider the national objectives and focus CPD activities on the schools specific needs and teacher effectiveness.

6.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented findings derived from the interviews and questionnaire according to the framework described in Figure 5.4. It has provided a comparative analysis of the schools and teachers profiles, indicating characteristic features, similarities and differences which give a better understanding of the contexts. Findings from the interviewees and teachers regarding CPD are presented thematically. Perceptions about CPD indicate a better structure and awareness in Portsmouth schools whereas private schools in Abuja seem to be more inclined towards CPD. Different types of CPD activities have been examined to determine the level of participation and effectiveness in both countries. Triangulating the findings from the interviews and questionnaires showed some level of inconsistency in certain areas for example effectiveness, evaluation of CPD activities. There are some similarities in the factors that motivate and constrain teacher towards participation in CPD activities in both countries; although with some peculiarities in different contexts. Good practices initiatives and priorities

identified were mainly based on findings from the interviews. The next chapter shall interrogate and extrapolate the findings, linking with relevant literature to address the research objectives.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the findings interrelating with literature using the theoretical framework explained in chapter two. The focus of the discussion lies on addressing the research objectives as stated in chapter one. It explores deeper meanings of the findings and identifies best practices which will improve and enhance teachers' professional development. The chapter develops a theoretical framework for teachers CPD, drawing from a comparative analysis and critical evaluation of the findings.

7.2 CPD PRACTICES AND POLICY

A key objective of the study was to identify, compare, and contrast CPD policy and practices in state and private/ independent primary schools in Abuja and Portsmouth. Findings related to this question are encapsulated in planning and organisation, types of activities, effectiveness and evaluation of CPD which have been identified from analysing the interviews and questionnaires in the previous chapter.

Most schools in Portsmouth have a CPD policy in place which is linked and integrated into the School Development Plan (SDP). Much attention is paid to CPD planning as indicated from the CPD coordinators' responses and all the schools have a development plan which interviewees were conversant with. CPD planning involves team work and is based on the professional development needs of teachers, school priorities and pupils' needs. These needs emerge through staff assessment and performance management systems enabling CPD coordinators to identify key areas of need to be included in the SDP. In contrast, findings suggest that in Abuja staff are not aware of either CPD policy or SDP. Only two private schools in Abuja carry out staff assessment as part of planning towards teachers' professional development and this is a recent development. This indicates that CPD is not yet adopted as a policy in most schools which is a reflection of a gap and weakness in implementation of government policies in Nigeria. According to TRCN, a mandatory CPD policy was introduced in 2006 to ensure that CPD is

adopted in schools (TRCN, 2007). It is not being enforced in Abuja, but whether it is being implemented in other parts of the country, is not known.

Whilst CPD coordinators in Portsmouth oversee staff development and have some autonomy, 'CPD coordinator' is not a common designation or role in Abuja schools, where headteachers or school proprietors are mainly responsible for staff development issues (Akinbote, 2007; Abdulhakeem, 1992). In Abuja, headteachers appear to have less autonomy or awareness of policy decisions regarding to school management. This is typical of most schools in Nigeria particularly within the private sector where school proprietors tend to take the key decisions. This can also be attributed to the perception of private schooling as a 'business' in Nigeria with a highly competitive market (Oni, 2011; Harman, 2011). Hence, school proprietors may be hesitant to disclose key information to members of staff who could decide to leave at any point. This reflects the low trust of a high power distance culture peculiar to the Nigerian education system.

In England the CPD coordinator has an important leadership role which has been adopted by most schools since 2001, when the national CPD strategy was introduced (see chapter four). The CPD coordinator's role is designed to ensure effective and efficient development and delivery of CPD policy in schools. Studies on the role of CPD leadership, shows how CPD is linked to SDP and performance management in schools in England (Robison et al, 2008). It can be deduced from the findings that a CPD coordinator plays a key part in enhancing a culture of professional development and to enable the structure function effectively. Developing an ethos of CPD in a school requires much emphasis on its relevance and constant engagement in a variety of activities that will improve teacher quality which rests on the leadership and structure in place.

Support strategies for adopting CPD, centre on school ethos and culture and availability of financial resources which are fundamental in planning and coordination (Brown et al, 2001). State schools in Portsmouth receive better support from the government than state schools in Abuja. The key role of school management in encouraging and supporting CPD and is fundamental in planning and organisation. This is lacking in Abuja state schools, but there is better support in the private schools. Budgetary allocation towards education in Nigeria is

extremely low; about 9% which is below UNESCOs recommendation of 26%. This invariably affects funding towards teacher training and professional development according to studies (Garuba, 2004; Hinchcliffe, 2002). Private / independent schools are expected to provide support and funding towards teachers' CPD. In Portsmouth, schools have a budget for CPD which the coordinators are aware of whereas, interviewees in Abuja do not have any knowledge about the budget for staff development. Findings suggest that private schools may be reluctant in investing in CPD programs due to issues with staff turn overs (see page 201).

Different types of CPD activities take place in both countries but, most schools are inclined to school based training, workshops and seminars. This concurs with other findings that internal CPD activities are more common in schools (Pedder and Opfer, 2011; Goodall et al, 2005; Gray, 2005; Brown et al, 2001). Whilst state schools in Portsmouth engage more in school based CPD compared to independent schools, a contrary situation exists in Abuja where private schools are more engaged in school based and external CPD although the level of participation differ with schools. In England, it is mandatory for state schools to organise five INSET days for teachers every year and at least one per term as explained in chapter 4. This explains why school based CPD activities are more common in Portsmouth state schools.

The majority of teachers in state and private schools in both countries claim to have awareness and understanding of CPD, however, findings from the interviewees in Abuja and evidence from literature suggests limited awareness of CPD especially in state schools in Nigeria (Junaid, 2009; Ushie, 2007). The inconsistency in the responses indicate external activities that require teachers to leave the school are less common, due to cost and the need to arrange for cover whilst the teacher is absent. Mentoring is more common in Portsmouth schools, probably due to the system for NQTs and teachers undergoing programs like SCITT or GTP, which is not common in Abuja. Engaging in higher education programs as a form of professional development, appears to be more popular with teachers in Abuja than in Portsmouth. This can be attributed to teachers

undertaking higher education programs in order to upgrade their qualifications as there are more unqualified teachers in Abuja schools.

It can be argued that the type of qualification and structure available for teacher training may contribute to the type of CPD teachers engage in. For instance, a high number of teachers with certificate qualification are likely to enrol more in distance learning / higher education degree programs. Garuba (2004) asserts that teachers in Nigeria tend to focus more on programmes that are geared towards acquiring paper qualification for upgrading purposes especially if it could lead to promotion or pay rise. Nigerian teachers consider paper qualification or certificates of attendance after undertaking professional development, as a vital ingredient in improving their profile and employability. This is also reflected as a motivating factor towards CPD participation in Abuja.

Research activities and Conferences are not very common forms of CPD in either country, possibly due to lack of awareness or opportunities for teachers to be involved. Such activities tend to focus more on senior management, researchers or people in academia in tertiary institutions. Studies suggest that action research is gaining popularity as a form of professional development activity for teachers in many countries (Cordingley et al, 2003; Parke, 1997; Elliot, 1993) however there is limited evidence of it in Portsmouth or Abuja.

Collaborative activities with other schools are unpopular in both countries. This may be due to constraint of time and workload which is typical of the teaching profession. Teachers may be unable to create time to engage in collaborative activities with other schools especially during term times. This is evidenced in studies in other countries (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Smithers and Robinson, 2005; Ingersoll and Smith, 2003). In addition where a competitive market exists in the school system, collaboration between schools may not be feasible as it is particularly in the private sector urban context in Nigeria.

Effectiveness in CPD has to do with the ability to achieve its aims and objective. Teachers in both countries appear to have similar perceptions and expectations of what an effective CPD should look like as illustrated in Figure 6.10. The majority of teachers in both countries tend to focus on the content, delivery and

practicability of the program, as an indication of effectiveness. Effectiveness of CPD is linked to the impact on the teacher's pupils or schools. Determining what teachers consider effective may provide an insight into good planning and structuring of CPD. However, measurement of effectiveness is difficult as individuals have different interpretations of what is effective. There are no specific criteria for measuring effectiveness, teachers' choice of an effective CPD is rather subjective and based on their individual perceptions although there is consistency in their description of an effective CPD. Individual perceptions of effectiveness are likely to be influenced by socio-cultural factors which are contextual. School based CPD activities are considered to be more effective than those organised externally which echoes other studies (Goodall et al, 2005; Brown et al, 2001). This may be due to convenience, cost effectiveness and the ability to focus on specific priorities or needs of the school, which is better achieved during school based activities. Whilst teachers are more interested on the impact of CPD on their professional development and pupils' achievement, school management seem to be more concerned about the implication for the school reputation due to the competitive market.

CPD evaluation is important in exploring structure and functionality as it provides evidence on impact and effectiveness. Impact of CPD activities is nevertheless difficult to measure, and limited techniques are adopted for evaluating CPD activities. The most common forms of evaluation in schools include the use of questionnaires, classroom observation and student performance. While classroom observation is used to determine the practicability of certain CPD activities, reflective logs are the least common. It is difficult to establish that improvement in student's performance is a result of teacher's participation in CPD, although such a correlation is often drawn as a means of evaluation. It is important to note that evaluative strategies are not the focus of the study, however it provides the researcher with a knowledge of what takes place after CPD has been undertaken, which is an integral part of implementation that highlights its effectiveness and functionality.

Some surprising findings emerged after triangulating data from interviews, questionnaires and documents. There was some inconsistency in the findings regarding effectiveness and evaluation of CPD activities especially in Abuja. This

may be due to different views by respondents, lack of clarity of the question or respondents feeling obliged to fill in an answer based on assumption of what they feel is right, which is a common caveat with questionnaires as explained in chapter five. Whilst the majority of teachers in Abuja claim rare participation in conferences, research activities, collaborative activities and mentoring, yet they indicate these activities are very effective which are contradictory. The manner in which the question was structured may have contributed to these teachers' responses. Using a likert scale with fixed alternative options places the respondent in a position where they feel obliged to fill in an answer. Where there are no alternative options for example, in open ended questions, the respondent is likely to give a more specific and realistic response. Although open ended questions may be more difficult to analyse they elicit better responses and provide meaningful answers using respondents own knowledge and feelings (Bryman, 2008; Cohen et al, 2007). Triangulating with interviews and documents however helped to improve the validity and credibility of some of the findings. Having too many opened questions in a questionnaire could also be more time consuming thereby discourage participants from filling in their opinions.

7.3 MOTIVATION AND CONSTRAINTS

Motivation and constraints are key variables in exploring CPD. Another objective of the study was to examine the motivators and constraints regarding teachers' participation in CPD in different contexts. These questions were directed to the interviewees and teachers in an open ended format and the responses are categorised according to common themes. Interviewees expressed concern about motivating teachers who have an attitude and are not really interested in professional development. Teachers need to be personally convinced about the relevance of CPD before they become motivated towards participation. Motivation is unlikely if an individual has no personal inclination towards professional development. This may be due to teachers' lack of understanding and awareness or lack of interest in teaching as a career. From the management's perspective, constant encouragement and enlightenment is helpful in motivating teachers to engage in CPD. In Abuja, some schools adopt a reward and recognition system for individuals who have undertaken professional development activities.

According to the findings from both countries, teacher motivation is perceived to be a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic factors which may include promotion prospects, management support, quality and content of the CPD, improvement of teaching skills, accessibility and practicability . This shows some semblance with teacher's perceptions about an effective CPD as illustrated in Figure 6.10. Hence it can be argued that effectiveness of CPD activities motivates teachers towards participation. There is considerable evidence from various studies that teachers are motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Kennedy and McKay, 2011; Armour and Yelling, 2004; Kington et al, 2003; Hustler et al, 2003; Nasser and Fresco's, 2003). There is evidence that teachers in sub Saharan Africa and lower income countries are more motivated by remuneration , allowances and favourable working conditions (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Adelabu, 2005). This can be attributed to the specific problem of low salaries which characterises developing countries. Three key motivators according to the frequency of response, in this study, include acquisition of knowledge and skills, professional status and career growth and personal interest in the content. These are consistent in both countries, implying that teachers' motivation towards CPD is primarily linked with their professionalism.

Again, the findings indicate that some limitations are common to teachers in both Abuja and Portsmouth while others are specific to different contexts as illustrated in Figure 6.11. The findings are based on views of both headteachers / CPD coordinators and teachers in both countries. Examining the responses indicates that the four major constraints consistent in both countries include; Lack of funding, time, workload and awareness. The findings of this research reinforce previous studies (Pedder and Opfer, 2011; Kennedy and McKay, 2011; Robison and Sebba, 2005; Garuba, 2004). This shows that teachers in both countries are faced with similar constraints regarding participation in CPD; however it is also context specific.

Whilst comparing both countries it was discovered that constraints peculiar to teachers in Abuja are; high turnover rate and attrition, poor conditions of service, lack of infrastructure and resources and overcrowded classrooms (especially in the public sector). With regards to Portsmouth, both teachers and CPD coordinators find constant changes in Government policies as an impediment to professional

development. As explained in chapter two, the education system in England has undergone incessant changes in government policies relating to teaching, curriculum, assessment, professional development and schooling (DfE, 2010; Ball, 2003; DfEE, 2001; ERA, 1988). Most of these changes have implications on schools and teachers which echoes the findings in Portsmouth.

Teachers' nonchalant attitude and lack of enthusiasm towards their professional development also limits participation. Where there is lack of support or encouragement from the school management, unfavourable teaching conditions or negative experiences, teachers' attitudes are likely to be affected. It is evident that attitude plays a significant role in teachers professional development however it could be inherent or a reflection of their experiences in the school. Teachers' attitudes are influenced by their working conditions, support from management and school culture, which affect participation in CPD activities (Pedder and Opfers, 2011; Kennedy and McKay, 2011). Excess work load is commonly identified by teachers as a barrier towards participation in CPD which mirrors other studies (Kendall et al 2012; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Robison and Sebba, 2005; Bennell, 2004). It can be argued that despite the diversities that exist in different countries, teachers share similar views about motivation to and constraints of participating in CPD. This indicates that the teaching profession exhibits certain characteristics which are common in different contexts. However there may be other factors that impinge on teachers' CPD, including the stage of development and the structure of the education system.

7.4 TRANSFERABLE BEST PRACTICES IN CPD.

A third objective of the study was to identify and explore transferable practices that may enhance the quality of teachers' professional development in primary schools in Abuja. Drawing from the theoretical underpinning framework of learning from cross national comparisons in education (Crossley, 2005; Phillips and Ochs, 2003; Rose, 2003; Philips, 2001). I have focused on exploring the scope of transferable best practices and lessons learnt from examining the findings from this study. Much of the transferable practices draw from the practices in English schools as well as evidence based on literature on teacher professional development. A reason for focusing the direction of learning from England to

Nigeria as pointed out in chapter one, is because CPD has been very prominent and has received much attention in the recent years in England, while it is in the process of being developed in Nigeria. It is important to note that not every practice may be applicable given the peculiar contextual issues and complexities of the Nigerian system (Obanya, 2011). In addition, some of the lessons may be avoiding what has not worked well in the English system.

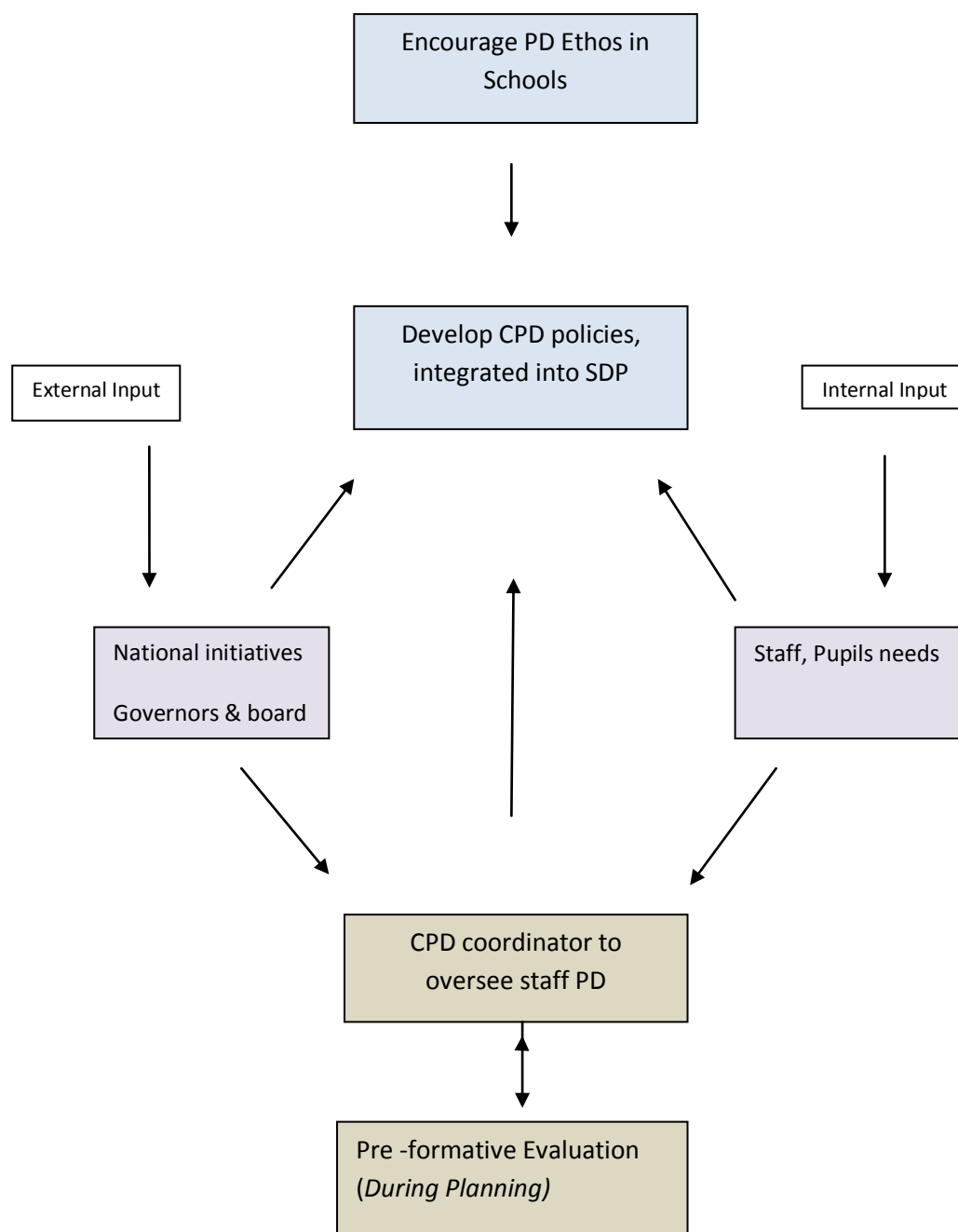
Given that England, has a more established system in place for teachers CPD, findings have been critically examined to explore its relevance in contributing to the development of CPD in Nigeria, foregrounding the specific context of urban Abuja. Establishing a good framework for CPD begins with adequate strategic planning, adopting a suitable and relevant practice and effective implementation. I have summarised and focused the best practices from the findings on CPD planning, priority and implementation

7.4.1 CPD Planning Model

Planning and organisation of CPD is very important as it determines effectiveness, however it begins by developing an ethos of professional development through creating awareness and constantly encouraging and educating staff on the value of CPD. This appears to be a common practice in Portsmouth schools which have CPD policies guiding staff development. School senior management should not just be aware of CPD policies but also actively involved in their planning; they should also involve key teachers. Schools should be encouraged to adopt development plans and CPD policies as the findings indicate that most schools in Abuja neither have CPD policies nor SDP which are fundamental for good planning. It is also important while planning to assess the needs of the teachers alongside school priorities. Also identifying the most suitable and effective time to undertake CPD activities is essential as this is identified as a barrier in CPD participation. Findings suggest that CPD activities should be organised just before school resumes, at the end of term or during a specific period during the term when teachers will not be distracted by attending to pupils. Inputs into the planning could be from external or internal sources which require teamwork, with the CPD coordinator at the forefront as indicated in Figure 7.1. External inputs can be government policies or initiatives, but internal inputs may include teachers,

pupils and school priorities.

Figure 7.1: Planning Model for CPD



7.4.2 CPD Implementation model

Given that the majority of schools in both countries focus more on school based CPD activities there should be evaluation before, during and after the activities depending on the type. The role of the CPD coordinator is key in synchronising the model and enhancing teachers' development as he or she oversees the activities, ensures evaluation and gives feedback to teachers or facilitators. Hence, the CPD leadership role is important for effectiveness in planning and implementation. Feedback should be well communicated to help to improve future activities. Goodall et al (2005), emphasise the value of feedback as a necessary aspect of CPD evaluation in schools which encourages teacher participation and helps in planning.

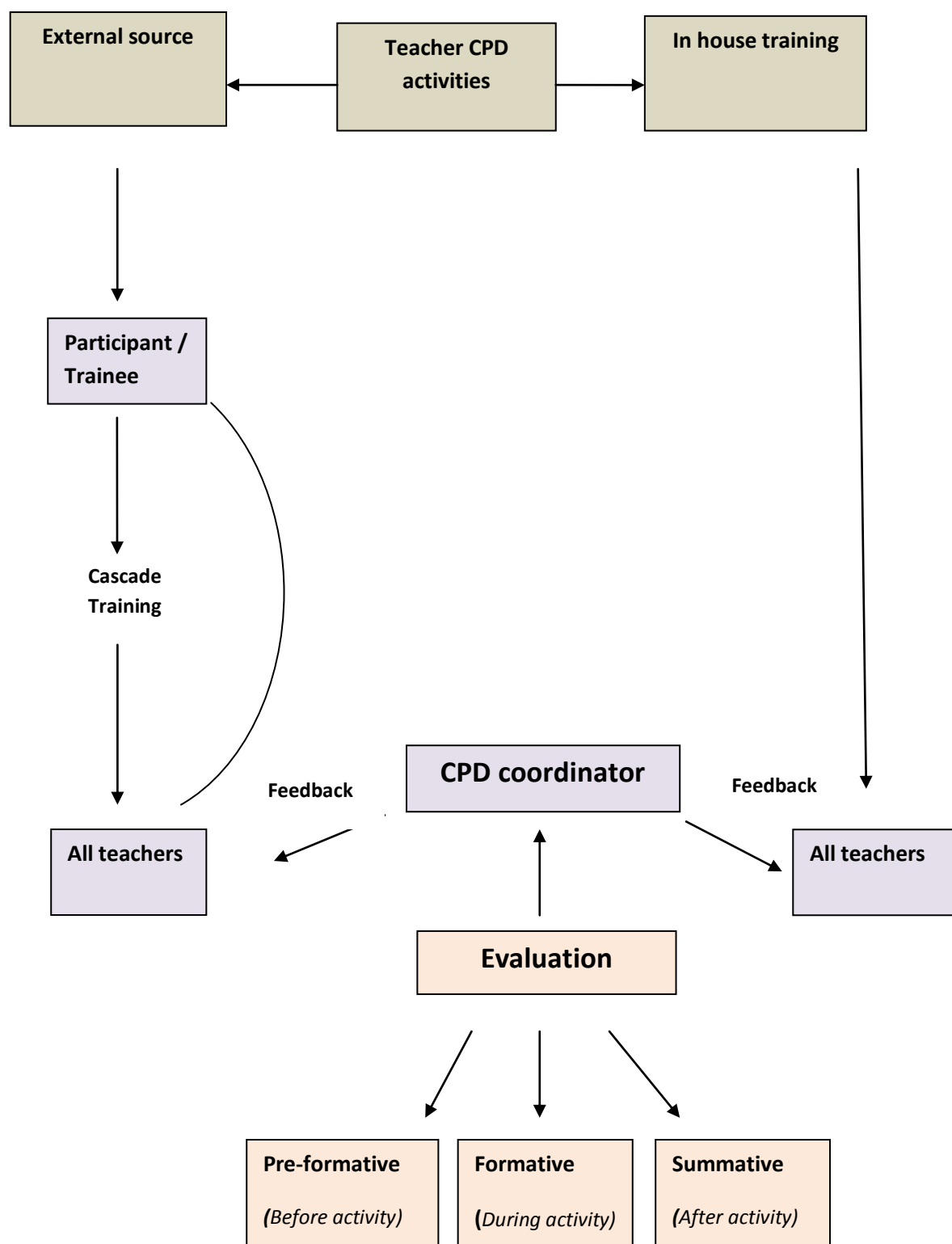
Where teachers participate in external CPD activities they should be required to disseminate what they have learnt to their peers through cascading their new knowledge. This should also be evaluated accordingly with feedback given to the presenting teacher. Considering the caveats of the model (as discussed in Chapter 6), active participation and experiential learning rather than transmission of knowledge, will enhance its effectiveness. If well managed, it can be a sustainable and cost effective means of training teachers which will develop their competence and confidence.

Evaluation of CPD must be incorporated into the schools' CPD policy. It should be done before (pre-formative), during (formative) and after (summative) the activity for maximum results (Guskey, 1996). Methods of evaluation may include; observation, questionnaires, reflective logs and collection of documents. Another form of CPD includes school networks for example collaborative activities with other teachers in other schools. Although collaboration may be a challenge due to marketization and competition amongst schools, its benefit of encouraging active learning and facilitating sharing of innovative practice and provision of professional support should be harnessed (Davis and Howes, 2007; Cordingley et al , 2003). Teachers are also encouraged to engage in personal professional development which includes research, review of relevant literature and online sources which is usually not evaluated but improves teachers' knowledge.

Structures make systems work and perform their functions. For CPD to be effective in a school system there has to be a structure which enables planning and implementation. Without a proper structure, the functions of CPD cannot be achieved. According to the Structural functionalist approach, one is able to see how different aspects or elements work together and come into play to enable a structure of CPD to function effectively. Structures include the needs assessment and planning and evaluation which are all addressed in this study. Schools in the two countries have structures for professional development of teachers, although; findings suggest different *modus operandi* and professional cultures which are based on contextual factors.

This is illustrated in Figure 7.2 below which gives a summary of how teacher's CPD can be implemented in schools.

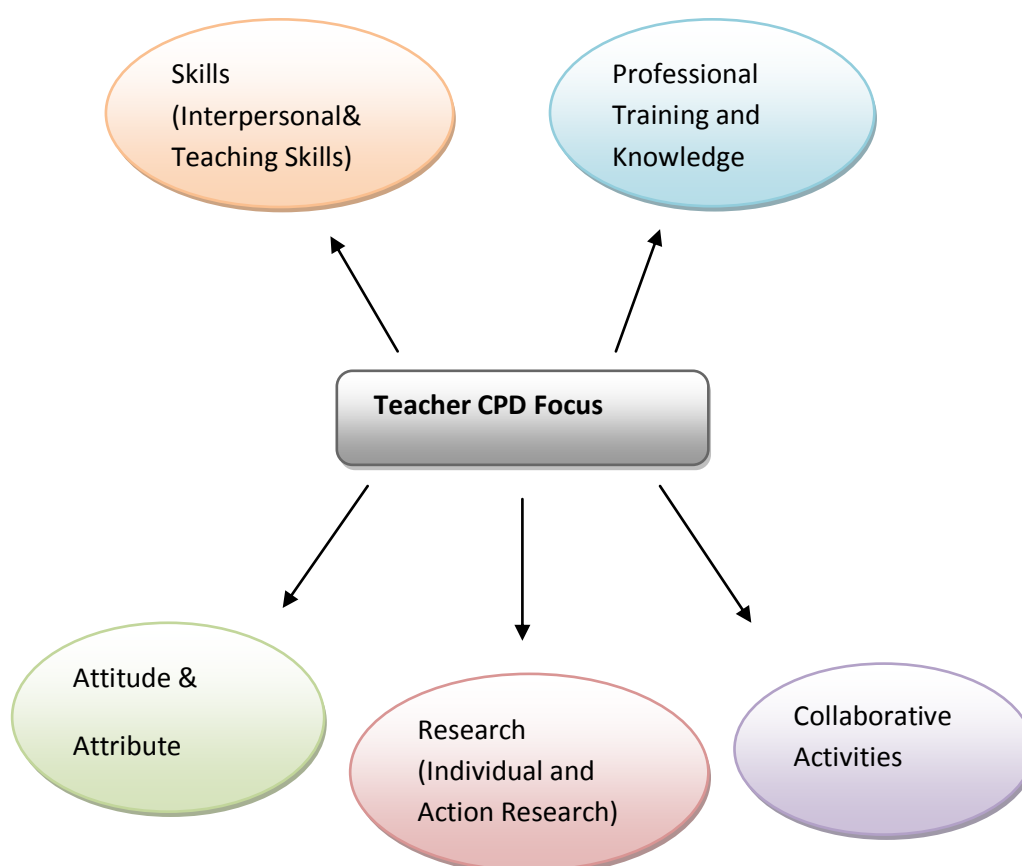
Figure 7.2: Teacher CPD Implementation Model



7.4.3 The SPARC Model for Teachers CPD

SPARC is an acronym derived from the findings which focus on the key priority areas for teachers CPD as a contribution to knowledge. Having analysed findings from the interviews and questionnaires in the two countries, five areas identified are fundamental in enhancing teacher quality and effectiveness in schools. These include; Skills, Professional Training, Attitude, Research and Collaborative Activities. This emerged from analysing the findings relating to CPD effectiveness, impact, motivation, areas of interest, and professional relevance in society and from review of literature and previous studies. It is clear that CPD should focus on improving teachers' skills, professional knowledge, attitudes and attributes; research and collaborative practices. These constitute the acronym SPARC as represented in Figure 7.3.

Figure 7.3: SPARC model for Teachers CPD



i). Skills – According to the findings, teachers in both countries consider ‘skill acquisition’ as important in participating in CPD and determining its effectiveness. Acquisition of skills is considered a key motivating factor towards participation (see Table 6.18, 6.19 and 6.22). The majority of teachers agree that a reason for their engaging in CPD was because of its impact on their skills and professional status as shown in Figure 6.10, which indicates what teachers consider as effective CPD. This concurs with previous studies which suggest that enhancing teachers’ skills is an imperative in CPD as this will help to improve pedagogic practice and produce better learning outcomes (Garuba, 2007; Avalos, 2000; Day, 1999). With the right skills a teacher will be able to communicate effectively and facilitate effective learning in the classroom. Teachers require interpersonal and pedagogical skills to enhance their effectiveness and competence. Interpersonal and communication skills are everyday skills that enhance human interaction which is important as teacher constantly interact with children, parents and administrators. Pedagogic skills are specific skills associated with teaching which include; planning, assessing, monitoring and feedback, motivational skills, behaviour management and classroom management (Reece and Walker, 2007; Muijs and Reynolds, 2001; Wragg, 1984). An aim of CPD is to improve teachers’ skills, attitudes and professional status, which is emphasised in several studies (Garuba, 2007; Goodall et al, 2005, Cordingley et al, 2003; Brown et al, 2001). CPD activities should focus on developing these skills to improve teacher quality and effectiveness.

ii) Professional training and knowledge are key priorities for teacher professionalism. Professional training and knowledge acquisition leads to a qualified teaching status as explained in attributes of teaching as a profession (see page 3.4). A fundamental reason for engaging in CPD is to improve teachers’ professional status and competence as professionals, obtainable through training and development. As my findings suggest, over 50% of teachers consider professional knowledge and career growth as key reasons for participating in CPD activities as indicated in Table 6.22.

Teachers must be able to impart knowledge and understand how children learn and remain updated with new developments in teaching and learning which will reflect and demonstrate their professional status. Professional knowledge also

requires an understanding of a subject area or speciality which is the main source of students' understanding. However, subject knowledge alone may not be sufficient to improve teacher's competence without having the skills to communicate to others in a clear and concise manner. According to the English QTS standards, it is pertinent that teachers have a good knowledge and understanding of a range of teaching , learning and behaviour management strategies and how to use and adapt them, including providing opportunities for learners to achieve their potentials (TDA 2007). Findings here suggest that teachers in both countries also recognise this as a fundamental characteristic of an effective CPD and a key motivator towards engaging in CPD activities (see Figure 6. 10).

iii) Attitude is also significant in determining teacher participation in CPD activities as indicated in the study. Findings from interviewees suggest that teachers' attitude is a major factor that influences their enthusiasm and engagement in CPD activities (see page 176). According to an interviewee in Abuja a lackadaisical and nonchalant attitude is often exhibited by some teachers which is often a hard nut to crack. In agreement, a CPD leader in Portsmouth suggested that constant encouragement and enlightenment about CPD may help in changing teachers' attitude towards their professional development (see page 177). Hence, a focus on developing the right attitude towards professional development to creating a good platform for professional learning is fundamental. Teachers' attitude should be positive, optimistic and adaptable to change and growth as this will reflect on children's performance and achievement and also their own enthusiasm towards professional development. It can be argued that when teachers' attitudes are congruent with their professional development, they are likely to have a positive disposition towards participation. Sosu (2009) argues that attitude is a vital effectiveness quality which includes emotional intelligence which includes different traits that influence teaching. Hargreaves (2000) suggests that teacher's attitude and emotional understanding is vital for raising classroom standards. Attributes are characteristics and behaviour peculiar to teachers, which will demonstrate their professional identity. Professional attributes include; establishing fair, respectable, trusting, supportive and constructive relationships with children; and demonstrating positive values and behaviour serving as role

models to their pupils. These constitute part of the recommended professional standards for teachers in England (TDA, 2007). Given the importance and relevance to teacher quality, professional development focusing on enhancing teachers' attitude and attribute will make a great impact. According to Guskey (2002.p, 383) professional development activities are frequently designed to initiate change in teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions. It is presumed that such changes in teachers' attitudes will lead to specific changes in their classroom behaviours and practices which in turn will result in improved student learning. Changes in teachers' attitudes and beliefs may not be as a result of professional development activity *per se* but the experience of successful implementation that brings about the change in attitude.

iv) Research is identified as an important area, given the place of education in a fast changing, dynamic and globalised society. It is evident from this research that not much emphasis is placed on research in schools (see Tables 6.14 and 6.15). Research is important in updating teachers' knowledge on developments in education and also allows them to be involved in evidence based enquiry which is an effective form of CPD (Cordingley et.al, 2003). This includes personal updating of knowledge through relevant literature and useful websites, or school based action research. Studies show that action research in schools brings about improvement and understanding of practice, and it encourages practitioners to become knowledge makers instead of knowledge users. There is considerable evidence to support its practice in enhancing teaching and learning in schools in England and many developed countries (Cordingley et.al, 2003; Villegas-Remiers, 2003; Elliot, 1993) and there is a dearth of empirical evidence on Nigerian schools. Findings suggest that action research is not prominent in most schools but teachers who are involved in action research are concerned with ways to improve practice by personal enquiry and investigation which leads to improvement of teaching and learning in schools (Villegas-Remiers, 2003; Hollingsworth, 1997). Getting teachers involved in evidence based research will enable them to explore deliberate and planned actions to improve classroom practice.

v) Collaborative Activities -Collaboration is central to teachers' professional development and is essential in enhancing and promoting best practices in

schools. Findings from the study, however, indicate minimal collaboration amongst schools. This involves a participatory approach to learning which entails cooperation, peer learning and brainstorming amongst teachers. Collaborative activities which are practical and applicable are considered as effective and as a motivator towards participation in CPD activities as indicated in Figure 6.10. CPD should therefore incorporate collegial and collaborative practices to promote interaction amongst teachers within a school or with other schools for the purpose of professional development. Research suggests that a one-time workshop or seminar is not likely to result in any significant long term changes in the practice of the teacher, whereas collaborative experiences are claimed to have a long term effect on the professional development of the teacher (Cordingley et al, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 1996). Teacher collaboration facilitates reflection and internalisation of the newly acquired knowledge, and the re-examination of the pedagogical skills which are all useful in professional development (Cordingley et al, 2003).

Given that CPD is widely acknowledged to be of great relevance in improving teacher quality in schools, the SPARC model provide a framework incorporating five areas identified from the findings which will make a huge impact in enhancing professional development in teachers. It can be used as a framework for teacher CPD in schools. Each of the key areas functions more effectively when interlinked with the others. For instance having the right attitude and skills are vital for teachers' professional knowledge to be effective and impact on the students. This can be facilitated through research in a collaborative environment. This is in line with the structural functionalist's perception of how structures are interrelated and enable the system to function. Hence, it can be argued that the effectiveness of the SPARC model is enhanced by the interrelationship of the elements that constitute the model.

7.5 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS PROFILES

A final objective of the study was to compare and contrast the profiles and characteristics of teachers in both countries. Teachers in both countries have similar reasons for joining the teaching profession which are mainly altruistic and intrinsic. This is typical of teachers in many countries for example; wanting to

make a difference, having interest in children and being inspired by past teachers or role models (Mulkeen et al, 2007; Ejieh, 2005; Bennell, 2004; Akyeampong and Stephens, 2002). It can be argued that teaching across different cultures contexts demonstrates common traits and interests (see Appendix 18). Circumstantial reasons found amongst teachers in Abuja revolve around preferred jobs not being available which may be contextual. Various studies in developed countries (Hayes, 2004; Reid and Claudwell, 1997; Papanasasiou and Papanasasiou, 1997) and developing countries (Mulkeen et al, 2007; Bennell, 2004; Akyeampong and Stephens, 2002) suggest that intrinsic and altruistic motives are more significant towards fulfilment in the teaching profession. It follows logically that teachers who experience fulfilment in their careers are likely to be more committed and enthusiastic towards their professional development.

Whilst all teachers in Portsmouth have teaching qualifications only 87 % in Abuja are qualified with private schools having more unqualified teachers than state schools. This is partly due to the poor implementation of government policy throughout Nigeria. There is clearly better compliance with government policy in Portsmouth schools and an adequate supply of qualified teachers. A significant percentage of unqualified teachers in Abuja state schools is a reflection of the poor implementation strategies, and gap between policy and practice which has been a major issue in Nigeria (Obanya, 2011).

Teachers in Abuja have lower qualifications (NCE), than in Portsmouth where most are graduates and have PGCE. This is a well-established fact (Adebayo, 2009; Green et al, 2008; Bennell, 2004). Statistics indicate that NCE is the most common teaching qualification in Abuja, with the majority of teachers in primary schools in Abuja having an NCE (see Appendix 12). In Portsmouth primary schools, according to the GTC (2011) data, (see Appendix 14), PGCE is the most common qualification followed by Bachelor degrees in education. The type of qualification plays a key role in teachers' professional status and studies suggest that countries that employ top qualified graduates as teachers are those with the highest standards of education e.g. Finland, South Korea, and Canada (Barber and Moourshed , 2007). The all graduate and post graduate profession is a recent trend and is being considered for adoption in England as part of the education reforms according to the Schools White Paper 2010 (DfE 2010).

In Nigeria NCE has been widely criticised as not being adequate to prepare teachers well for the present generation (Garuba, 2004; Ajelayemi, 2005), nevertheless the majority of teachers in both school public and private schools possess this qualification. Although it is assumed that graduate or postgraduate teachers will be more competent than NCE holders, there is limited empirical evidence to justify that claim. This raises some concern for teacher quality, and may be an area for further research.

The number of years teachers have spent in the profession may be reflected in their professional development (Day and Gu, 2010). As findings suggest, teachers in Portsmouth schools have longer years of teaching experience than their counterparts in Abuja. This implies more investment in professional development of teachers for schools that consider teacher quality a priori and have sufficient financial resources. Huberman's model, suggests that teachers between 7 to 18 years may not be very enthusiastic about their professional development and feel relatively secure although there was no evidence to substantiate this claim. Huberman's model was incorporated into the questionnaire with the intention to provide some helpful insight for analysis however, it was not very useful in explaining teachers' perception of their professional development (Day and Gu, 2010; Huberman, 1995). Given the ageing teacher population in Portsmouth, it is not surprising to find lengthy years of experience amongst teachers in state and independent schools. Although years of experience may relate closely to teachers age, some teachers are late entrant into teaching or have taken a career break.

Studies suggest that whilst experience can have important benefits, owing to greater maturity and on the job learning, it can also create problems of inertia, lack of innovation and resistance to change which may not necessarily occur with a younger teacher population (OECD, 2005; Mante and O'Brein, 2002). A high proportion of teachers with relatively little experience may point however, to a need for more training and professional development. There may be issues around teacher quality and standards in schools with a high concentration of young and relatively inexperienced teachers. This appears to be the case in Abuja where the majority of teachers have between 1 to 6 years of experience.

The gender structure in both Portsmouth and Abuja is consistent with previous studies that primary schools are dominated by female teachers. There are sociocultural and economic explanations for this although there may be some peculiar factors in each country. It is widely believed that female teachers tend to be more caring and patient with younger children, which is an important attribute required in teaching at primary school level. Studies also suggest that younger children are more likely to be attached to the female teachers than the male (Bricheno and Thornton, 2002). Another reason it is claimed is that female teachers tend to accept the lower salary in primary schools while the male teachers are attracted to the higher salaries in secondary schools. There have been recent concerns about the gender imbalance in primary schools and the lack of male teacher as role models (OECD, 2009; Bricheno and Thornton, 2002; Skeleton, 2002; Thornton 1999). There is a higher percentage of male teachers in Abuja compared to Portsmouth and this seems typical of most states in Nigeria and other developing countries (TRCN, 2009; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007). The reason for this may lie in traditional patterns of gender stereotyping or in the increase in female education and the expansion of education generally.

There is considerable disparity in the age categories of teachers in each country although little variation between the state and private / independent schools. The higher percentage of older teachers in Portsmouth, mainly 41 years and above, compared to most teachers below 40 in Abuja may have implications for professional development in both countries. Studies suggest that younger people are more enthusiastic about developing their careers, while older teachers are less enthusiastic or adaptable to change (OECD, 2009; Moon, 2007). A younger population of teachers in Abuja could indicate more enthusiasm towards professional development, whilst the older category in Portsmouth could mean less enthusiasm. This may not be a generalizable claim, however, as other factors may serve as impediments towards professional development as findings suggest (see Figure 6).

Portsmouth being a city with much older schools is likely to have older teachers especially where the staff turnover is low as findings suggest. Also the age disparity could be influenced by retirement age, life expectancy, socioeconomic and cultural factors. England has a higher life expectancy for both male (78.2) and

female (82.6) and a retirement age of 65 whereas, in Nigeria the retirement age is 60 but life expectancy is only 47 for both sexes. According to TALIS (2008) report, countries with a substantial proportion of teachers close to retirement age are likely to replace them with younger less experienced teachers to reduce staff costs (OECD, 2009). Studies show that pension scheme in Nigeria not very attractive whereas England has a good pension scheme for teachers (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Moon, 2007).

Findings show a significant disparity between teaching conditions in Abuja and Portsmouth; hence one could argue that this may contribute to the fewer years of service in Abuja schools. Studies in Sub-Saharan Africa and south Asia, suggest that a high rate of teacher attrition and turnover in schools is largely due to the poor working conditions and lack of job satisfaction. typical of schools in developing countries (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Moon, 2007; Evans, 1998). Teachers' length of service in Abuja possibly reflects staff turnover and retention and will have implications for staff development. State schools in both countries have more teachers with longer duration of service than the private /independent ones, which may be attributed to job security in the public sector. Schools which invest and support teachers' CPD may only realise the impact on the pupils learning or teacher's skills and attribute if they retain the staff.

Staff turnover of schools in England varies and is much higher in London than the rest of the country. It is higher in schools which are badly managed and have difficult pupils. Teachers are more likely to stay longer in schools where there is a sense of purpose, where teachers are valued and supported, with career development opportunities, good incentives and good leadership. Smithers and Robinson (2005), argue that not all schools with high turnover lack good leadership, but its impact could be outweighed by other factors not necessarily under a schools' control such as local demographics, relocation, relationship issues, and other personal reasons.

With regards to CPD, it can be argued that schools with high turnover of teachers need to continually invest in recruitment, CPD and provide support for new teachers in order to be able to maintain the standard and quality of education

provided. According to a private school head teacher, in Abuja, a reason why not much attention is paid to investing in CPD is because of high turnover rates, hence teachers do not spend enough time to implement what they have learnt, which may not yield much benefit to the school. Further disadvantages of high staff turnover are that it affects planning and sustainability of CPD, undermines the ability to build and sustain professional development, thereby diminishing teacher quality and student achievement (NCTAF, 2002).

7.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has discussed the findings from the analysed data and has provided some evaluative insights into teachers CPD focussing on the research objectives. It has highlighted some transferable practices drawing from the research findings and the literature and has presented a planning and implementation model which can be adopted as a framework for CPD in primary schools.

It also identified five key areas that teachers CPD should focus on which include skills, professional training and knowledge, attitudes , research and collaboration which represented the SPARC model. Each aspect of the model is vital to teachers professional development; they are interrelated and will be more effective when they are incorporated into teacher CPD policy These models demonstrates how structures that relate to CPD are interrelated and work together to function effectively. Finally, the chapter has examined and compared the profiles of teachers in the two countries and highlighted the similarities and disparities between them by linking with literature.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter re-emphasises the purpose of the study and provides an overview of the thesis and gives a brief account of how teaching has evolved as a profession over the last two decades. From a critical evaluation of the research findings, it provides a comparative analysis of teachers CPD in Abuja and Portsmouth highlighting key similarities and differences between the two. It suggests areas for further research and recommendations for school stakeholders, researchers and policy makers.

8.2 OVERVIEW OF STUDY

The study has examined, compared and critically evaluated the practices of CPD in English and Nigerian primary schools. Its purpose was to explore and learn about practices which could enhance the quality of the professional development of teachers in the urban district of Abuja. The research objectives were outlined in chapter one and the study has provided profiles of teachers in both contexts, perceptions of CPD, types of professional development activities, motivation and barriers to participation in CPD activities. The mixed method research design employed to investigate the research objectives consisted of interviews, questionnaires, literature review of academic work, reports and documents which enabled triangulation.

The study was grounded in the structural functionalist's approach to comparative education which allows one to compare CPD in two different contexts. Nigeria and England have education systems, consisting of structures: schools, teachers' methods of training and professional development which perform similar functions. Functionalists view systems education as having interrelated structures through which the functions of education are performed. Schools are a means of providing education which aims at transmitting norms, values and culture and socialising and integrating individuals into the society. They also provide individuals with knowledge and skills that they will need to work within society and act as citizens (Stephens et al, 1998). Since teachers are key agents involved in fulfilling the functions of education, their training and professional

development is key to the efficiency and effectiveness of the system as emphasised in this study.

Given that the research focuses on exploring the scope for transferable best practices from one country to another, the study has also drawn upon a genre of literature on comparative international research in education. This considers cross national comparisons as means of gaining better understanding of practices in different countries and drawing lessons and transferable practices (Rose 2003; Philips, 2000; Crossley, 1999). Sensitivity to culture and context is central in this study. It recognises limitations and complexities stemming from comparative and international education studies, some of which include; language and communication barrier, difficulty in finding truly comparable data and information, the changing nature of research problems and priorities, and the availability and accessibility to current data (Crossley and Tikly, 2004; Crossley and Watson, 2003; Alexander, 2001). Although schools and teachers in each country are not the same in every respect, specific criteria were applied during the selection of schools, which provided a common denominator and basis for comparability across the different contexts (See figure 5.2.).

Professionalism involves the process whereby an occupation passes through various stages of development, attains a high status and provides quality service. The study has shown how teaching has developed through several stages and how the need for professional development has become more apparent in both countries in the last two decades (see Figure 4.1). The process entails pre-service training and in-service training which includes CPD. CPD is conceptualised as any activity or programme that enhances teachers' attributes, knowledge, skills and understanding, and will improve their professional competence and effectiveness in impacting on pupils' learning and achievement.

Teachers are considered as semi-professionals when comparing their status with other professionals like Lawyers, Doctors, Engineers and Accountants (Haralambos and Holborn, 2008; Horowitz, 1995; Etzioni, 1969). The lower status accorded to the teaching profession seems common to many countries, and is attributed to several factors including: lower entry requirements, duration and depth of training, ease in practicing without professional training, lower

remuneration and high feminisation in the profession (Hargreaves et al, 2006; Bennell, 2004). Primary school teachers, who are the focus of this study, are particularly viewed to be of a lower status even than other teachers in part because they dominated by women (OECD, 2009; Bricheno and Thorton, 2002; Skeleton, 2002).

In England, there has been a shift towards professionalism and teachers were required to develop appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes so that they could be granted greater autonomy to manage their own affairs (Swann et al, 2010; Troman and Jeffery, 2008; Whitty, 2006). The new professionalism however, signalled an increase in central control and prescription not only of the school curriculum in 1988, but also of teaching methods. Participation in CPD is recognised as vital in professionalization; albeit with the predominant purpose of equipping teachers to implement government reforms. Investment in professional development was geared towards school improvement and teachers' professional development was set within the context of institutional development.

A lack of autonomy restricts teachers' creativity and ability to function, therefore contradicting the characteristic of a profession. While this is considered as a means of accountability and monitoring for improving teachers' quality according to policy makers, teachers and headteachers in schools consider it as an impediment to their professional identity. Teachers function in a context nested within the power structures of the school, local authority and the government and have limited autonomy to determine their classroom practice as they have specific times within which they are expected to, follow a particular format of lesson plan, and prepare their pupils to pass qualifying exams to the next level of education. This was confirmed by teachers and CPD coordinators in England as explained in chapter six.

The situation in Nigeria shows some resemblance to the developmental trend in England, although the influence of government on teacher professional development is not very prominent. This is because of the complex and diverse nature of the education system, as well as a huge gap between policy intention and implementation. Further, there is poor monitoring of the standards and inadequate

teaching conditions especially in the state schools. Private schools which tend to dominate urban districts are more autonomous in their operations and less affected by government policies. Whilst both countries are undergoing developments and changes with regards to teacher professionalization, it is clear that socio-economic, political and contextual factors do influence the implementation process.

8.3 SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS.

Comparing findings from both countries has provided an insight into the practices and issues investigated, which is one of the purposes of comparative research in education (Phillips, 2000; Broadfoot, 1999). This study has examined patterns of teacher CPD in schools in both countries, and observed their diversity and peculiarity. In comparing both systems of education and teacher professional development certain similarities and differences come to light. Although the Nigerian educational system has been modelled closely on the British structure, the current school system is different because of the diverse cultures, social, political and technological context and also the allocation and management of funding (Ozigi and Canham, 1981). There are similarities in the school structure and entry age into nursery, primary and secondary school although secondary education is different as illustrated in table 2.1 and 2.2.

The study of CPD in state and private/ independent primary schools has identified significant structural and contextual differences between the two countries although there are some similarities. With regards to teaching and learning conditions, state schools in Nigeria are characterised by dilapidated structures, poor facilities, inadequate learning resources, and overcrowded classrooms (Oni, 2011; Adebayo, 2009; Adegite, 2006). State / public schools are maintained by the government and are generally considered to be of very poor standard. Parents only send their children to state schools as a last resort since they cannot afford the cost of private schooling. In contrast, the majority of school age children in England attend state schools which are also maintained by the government. The disparity can be explained by the huge difference in the infrastructure, facilities, investment, funding, management and general quality of education between the two systems (Adebayo, 2009).

Private schooling in Nigeria shows some resemblance to independent schools in England in the sense that they are both fee paying, flexible in terms of the curriculum and independently managed, hence not supported by the government. However, there are significant differences again with the categorisation, management structure, and technological advancement in private schools in both countries. Private schools in Nigeria have better facilities and learning conditions than state schools and are perceived to provide quality education but this is all relative and they are generally far inferior to independent schools in England.

Private education in Abuja is highly market driven and there is a competitive rivalry which impacts on school stratification, pupil population, staff turnover, attrition and compromise in quality of education in some cases. In order to attract a certain category of parents, some schools in the higher categories place emphasis on their teacher quality as well as investing in infrastructure and facilities. These schools will seek to attract the best teachers by paying higher salaries and invest in CPD to ensure their teachers are well qualified which may also be considered as an incentive and good selling point. Contrarily, the intense competition acts as a disincentive for some schools to invest in CPD for fear of losing their more qualified staff to other schools offering better conditions and salaries. Findings from this study suggest that some schools consider investing in teachers CPD to be a wasted effort, due to the high rate of attrition of competent teachers.

In spite of the government's commitment to universal education and focus on access, equity and quality, the education system in Nigeria does not provide equal opportunities to all. The under resourcing of the public sector and the poor quality of education it offers, leads to parents preferring to buy education according to their means. Education becomes a commodity and there is a market to provide what people want, therefore some schools go to any extent to attract and maintain the right clientele. In Nigeria there is a wide gap between quality of education at different categories of school provision which has had a profound impact on social stratification, as the upper and middle classes send their children to the higher categories of schools where they receive better education and then proceed

to higher education and better job opportunities. With a real market economy in the 21st century, conflict theorists' perception of education appears to be more prominent, particularly in a society where there is a huge divide between the rich and poor with very limited resources and opportunities for the lower class. This undermines the contribution of education as an agent of social mobility according to the functionalists' theory of education, thereby giving credence to conflict theorists, who argue that education is an agent of social stratification and perpetuates inequality in society.

8.3.1 Comparative Overview of Teachers' Characteristics and CPD

While teaching has been an all graduate profession in England since the 1990s, in Nigeria teaching is yet to be widely accepted as an all graduate profession with NCE approved as the minimum qualification since 1998. These developments show similar antecedents in both countries as the minimum qualification is continually being raised to improve the status and professional identity of the teaching profession. Findings suggest a high proportion of teachers in Nigeria still hold an NCE qualification which shows a wide gap in comparison with the English system where the Certificate in Education has been abolished. This raises concerns about the professional identity of the Nigerian teacher if the minimum qualification is at certificate level. The quality of training at certificate level is not comparable with training at graduate level, and may not be able to meet the current standards needed in the profession. Hence, there is a need to overhaul and modernise the training to move towards professionalization. The trend toward professionalization in Nigeria will require a shift from NCE to B.Ed. as minimum teaching qualification, in the future. However, the time it takes will depend on national priorities, the funding of education and political stability and resolve.

CPD has received a high profile in England over the last decade and various initiatives and policies to promote and enhance its implementation have been introduced. A national CPD strategy introduced in 2001 was designed to ensure that teachers are given more opportunities for relevant, focused, effective professional development (DfEE, 2001b). The strategy proposed a number of initiatives aimed at providing teachers with more opportunities for access to

ownership of their personal professional development and it requires teachers to have up to 30 hours of CPD in a year. There is more awareness of CPD in English schools with the position of CPD coordinators to oversee staff development in all schools. This explains why most of the schools in Portsmouth have CPD policies and CPD leadership very prominent in most schools compared to Abuja.

The acronym CPD is not widely understood in schools in Nigeria but teachers are more familiar with in-service training, staff training and capacity building. An enabling environment for staff development is lacking especially in state schools due to the fundamental issues identified in the research and by others (Adelabu, 2005; Adesina 2009). Private schools engage more in CPD activities and have better environments to support staff development than in state school specifically in urban districts (Thompson, 2012).

Factors that encourage and motivate teachers towards CPD and those that act as barriers in participating are similar both within and between countries. The school management plays a major role in providing support and encouraging a culture of professional learning. However, teachers need to be encouraged to take ownership of their professional development and consider it as a personal responsibility rather than a professional obligation. They should be involved in identifying their professional development needs and constantly reflect on their practice.

Although there is a commitment to employing only qualified teachers in both countries, studies have shown that the policy is much more adhered to in England than in Nigeria, due to implementation lapses and the complexity of the education system in the latter (Obanya, 2011; Garuba, 2004; Tahir, 1994). A disparity in teacher education in the two countries is in part due to the different support systems and funding opportunities available. There are training bursaries, grants and loans available during and after training in England which is lacking in Nigeria. Where they exist they are politically influenced, poorly managed and unevenly allocated (Ajetomobi and Ayanwale, 2004). It is clear that the availability of financial support which is fairly allocated may motivate people to enrol into teaching and continue with professional development.

Disparities regarding age, years of teaching experience and number of years teachers have served in their respective schools provide insights into the characteristics of teachers in their different contexts. Portsmouth has a higher age profile of teachers with more years of experience compared to Abuja which has younger teachers with less experience. One might expect more investment in training and enthusiasm towards professional development where staff are younger with less experience. However this can only apply in a system where training and development is given much attention and priority. Age disparity may be influenced by retirement age, life expectancy and socio economic, contextual and cultural factors. Whilst the majority of teachers in Portsmouth have spent a minimum of 11 years in their schools, most teachers in Abuja have only served for less than five years. This is part due to the expansion and newness of private schools in Abuja.

Reflecting on CPD in Abuja, there is a better system in place for teachers' professional development in private schools, which is attributable to better awareness of the importance of CPD in enhancing teacher quality, the competitive markets and the huge demand for quality education. Another factor is the autonomy of the private schools which can decide on their own HR policies. It is important to note that CPD can become an agent of change in improving the quality of education at various levels. Firstly, at a personal professional level, individuals should take responsibility for their own professional development by engaging in different forms of CPD activities, which will build their capacity and improve their effectiveness and the performance of their pupils. Secondly, at the school level priority and emphasis needs to be given to teacher development and in providing an enabling environment that will support and encourage CPD. For school proprietors and administrators in the private sector, there needs to be more awareness, better recognition and acceptance that CPD is not just a marketing tool for attracting and meeting the demands for competent teachers, but more importantly, an avenue to build the capacity of teachers to improve educational standard. Thirdly, for policy makers, a better understanding and wider acceptance of the impact of effective CDP activities in improving teaching standards and

contributing to the quality of education which is in line with the transformation agenda of the current government administration.

This study has provided a comparative approach to the study of CPD using England and Nigeria and within those countries two case studies of Portsmouth and Abuja. It is clear that England is a more economically and socially developed country than Nigeria and that therefore direct comparison may not be possible. However, it can be argued that cross national comparison is still possible if the structures and functions of the phenomenon to be compared are similar and if the focus of the research is to identify best practices in the advanced nation that has the potential to improve aspects of provision and professional practice in the developing country's system. In this study there are lessons that can be drawn from the transferable practices in England which show how progress could be made in moving towards more professionalism and enhanced professional practice which have been highlighted in chapter seven, in a specific urban context in Nigeria

8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

From a retrospective overview of this research, certain transferable practices are identified which may be applicable in an enabling environment within urban contexts in Nigeria. Whilst some of the recommendations are derived from the findings, others are general recommendations reemphasised due to relevance and contribution to this study which are useful for school management, teachers, policy makers and stakeholders in education. It is important to note that the direction of learning and recommendation tends to be from England to Nigeria.

1. Drawing from the findings the transferable best practices recommended for schools include; the planning and implementation model for teachers CPD, which is described in chapter seven. Adopting these practices is feasible in relatively affluent urban contexts where there is a competitive market and a conducive and enabling environment with supportive leadership that will encourage teacher CPD. A key priority for implementing the model centres on creating an ethos of

professional learning where staff are well motivated and enthusiastic about their professional development.

2. The SPARC model which is derived from my findings is suggested as a useful framework for teachers' CPD in schools. This will help to improve teacher competence as the model focuses on developing teaching skills, professional attributes, encouraging positive attitudes, research and collaborative activities.
3. School based CPD should be given priority as it is found to be more effective and helps to address specific needs of both teachers and schools. Such activities should have a collegial and collaborative approach as this will be more cost effective and a good source of motivation enhancing teachers' confidence as evidenced from the findings.
4. Schools should be encouraged to have formalised SDP and CPD policies currently lacking in most schools in Abuja. Training in these areas may be necessary for the school leadership and management.
5. For teaching to occupy a place of professional relevance and status in the society, the current minimum qualification of NCE in Nigeria should be reviewed and upgraded to a graduate level qualification. Findings indicate that the majority of teachers in Nigerian primary schools are NCE holders. Although this is widely accepted as the minimum teaching qualification, in Nigeria it may not be sufficient to train the current generation without an upgrade or update of the curriculum. Studies indicate that the quality of NCE programs are far below desirable standard and admission into training colleges and institutions are rather low (Akinbote, 2007; Omoreghie, 2006). Teaching in England has been an all graduate profession for almost 20 years, which is typical of most developed countries with successful education systems (Barber and Moorshed, 2007). Policy makers should consider this as an imperative towards raising the standard of education in the country.
6. More emphasis should be placed on the importance of teaching as a profession especially at secondary education level where students are thinking about their future careers in order to encourage more people to consider becoming teachers. More publicity should be given to the teaching profession through innovative

programs and initiatives. For example; placements to provide a taster for students to gain some practical experience in schools. The media has a huge role to play in spreading the word to encourage students to enrol into teaching which could be through adverts and publications as in England. Also, there is a need to project positive images of teachers to encourage both male and female students.

7. Given that funding is a major constraint for aspiring and practicing teachers, the Nigerian government should look into funding opportunities including bursaries, grants or loans toward teacher training and professional development. All schools should be required to invest in and include staff professional development in their budgets.
8. . Private public partnerships should be encouraged as a means to support the failing public sector. Private schools should be encouraged to provide support with professional development for teachers in neighbouring state schools to enhance their professional development.
9. There is a need for a reorientation and attitudinal change in the education sector so that both teachers and school proprietors or administrators have a better understanding of the role of CPD as a contribution towards developing quality teachers and improving the quality of education. Teacher development not only benefits the school and children, but also makes a contribution to the economy and society overall.
10. Finally, a strong commitment to innovation and research is required in the Nigerian education system to ensure delivery of better policy outcomes. Stakeholders in education should be involved in such research and policy decisions and more focus should be on bridging the gap between policy and implementation which is a fundamental issue in the Nigerian education system.

8.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As there is limited evidence regarding effectiveness of different types of teacher qualifications in Nigeria, an in depth comparative analysis focused on effectiveness in classroom practice could make a relevant contribution to teacher professionalism. It is vital to evaluate the content and depth of teacher training in

Nigeria and other developing countries in order to have an insight into whether both teachers and schooling meet the demands and current needs of society. An international comparison of teacher qualifications will also provide an understanding of the content and depth of various routes into teaching. Research could generate ideas of how to improve the training of teachers which is fundamental to quality and professional development.

There is a gap in training for management and headship roles which is vital for effective management of schools which can provide a career pathway for teachers aspiring for such positions. This study revealed that head teachers in Nigeria lack specific training for their roles unlike in England with the NPQH as explained in chapter seven. Although the study focused on teachers CPD, training and development of head teachers is a continuation and should not be left out. Effective ways to develop a system of training for headship roles should be researched further. Other developing countries like Ghana, Kenya, Rwanda, are beginning to adopt strategies for training head teachers for the role of headship and management (Kusi, 2008; Mulkeen et al, 2007; Bush and Oduro, 2006; Simkins, 2005; Bush 1998).

More in-depth investigation into possible factors that influence age range, teacher's length of service in schools, years of teaching experience, retention and qualifications, in different types of school and locations in both countries could generate interesting findings which could be useful in recruitment and planning teacher professional development.

As the study focused on the urban area of Abuja, the findings are not representative either of the city or country. A study of the situation in the suburbs and rural areas would complement this study and provide evidence of the practice across the metropolis and outside. Recent surveys, conducted in the rural areas of Lagos, revealed a huge void in the system with a vast majority of primary schools, unapproved, unregulated and overcrowded in dilapidated conditions (Harma, 2011). This may also be the case in greater Abuja, however there is no empirical data on this. For a reformation and improvement in the education system according to the transformation agenda (2011-2015), rural areas must be given priority as they constitute the highest proportion of school age children.

Finally, further research is required to investigate how to raise the quality of education, the quality of teaching and effective ways of scaling up the quality of education and teacher quality especially in the rural research.

8.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Several limitations arose when undertaking this study which derived from scope, research design and conceptualisation of the study. Methodological limitations are those inherent in the research design as explained in Chapter five. The scope of the study was limited by the number of participants and schools in Portsmouth which was far less than participants in Abuja (see Table 5.2). Although, this was influenced by the population of schools and teachers in both contexts and other factors, as explained in chapter five. Clearly, more participants in the English schools would have yielded more results and perhaps different findings. Hence, one cannot make any generalizable claims due to the limited coverage from the purposive sampling and the specific context.

Additional methods, like focus groups, would have helped in providing further evidence, through building rapport, clarifying assumptions and possibly improve reliability and validity of the findings. This was not possible due to lack of time and work schedule of teachers in both countries. Primary teaching in both countries requires teachers to teach throughout the day, which makes it difficult for researchers to get 45 minutes of their time for an interview or focus group. As a result of this limitation, only headteachers and CPD coordinators were interviewed.

Questionnaires are limited in their reliability as they do not give respondents an opportunity to express themselves as in an interview. Also responses to the questions may not be true. Triangulation can mitigate that there may still be contradictory findings which raises the issue of reliability and validity of the data. Finding a way to ascertain the validity or level of truthfulness of the participants' responses is a common problem with surveys (Bryman, 2008; Cohen et al, 2007).

Distance, time and funding were also limiting factors especially as the researcher was based in England and required to make several trips to Nigeria. As the research was personally funded making additional visits for further information

and clarification was not possible. Considering the nature of the comparative research, time was a major limitation in this study, as the thesis had to be completed within a specified time frame. Constant updating and revising the literature was particularly overwhelming as it was quite difficult to know what to include, or exclude and how to make certain claims given the constant changes, developments and critiques in government policies and evolving research studies .

8.7 CONCLUSION

The educational landscape in Nigeria and England is changing and schools are at the forefront of this change. While teachers are key agents in achieving quality education in schools, their professional development is pertinent to quality assurance. This study has shown some parallels in the developments in the teaching profession over the last three decades, although not in time sequence. Although teaching conditions and opportunities for professional development in Nigeria and England may differ based on contextual factors, there is a common drive towards professionalization and improving teacher quality in both countries. The prominence and awareness of CPD in Portsmouth schools, which reflects on the leadership, policies, and planning is influenced by government's emphasis on professionalism. While CPD is gradually gaining grounds especially in the private sector in urban districts of Abuja, state schools are burdened and overwhelmed with issues which affect the working conditions of teachers. There is a huge gap between the state provision in England and Nigeria which can be attributed in part to the poor system of public administration, low budgetary allocations towards education and complexity of the education system as explained in chapter three. There is also a major challenge with regards to policy and implementation in the Nigerian system which is lacking good leadership, accountability, transparency and good public administration and governance.

The teaching profession seems to exhibit common characteristics and attributes and have similar experiences and perceptions regarding their professional development across different cultures and contexts specifically regarding reasons for joining the profession, effectiveness of CPD, motivation towards and barriers affecting participation which concur with findings in other countries. There are also some traits peculiar to specific contexts for instance; issues with turnover and

competitive markets in Abuja's private schools; dilapidated infrastructures, and poor teaching and learning conditions in state schools in Abuja; impact of government policies on teachers professionalism in schools in Portsmouth. Although some transferable practices have been identified from the findings which may enhance development and improvement of teachers' CPD in Nigeria, it may only be applicable within the urban contexts where there are more enabling environments especially in the private sector. An enabling environment in this context is one where there is support from the leadership and management, a conducive teaching and learning environment and where priority is placed on staff development. The private sector can serve as a pilot to encourage professional development of teachers in other schools across the country.

Education is an essential institution within all societies and schools are the structures through which children are socialised and integrated into society, prepared for the labour market and enabled to exploit their potentials. This thesis has examined those structures and functions in two different contexts and identified similarities in the way that teachers are trained and professionalised. Each system is at a different stage of development, but there is scope for the practices identified in Portsmouth, England to be transferred to Abuja, Nigeria. Although comparative education and policy transfer are continually contested, the advantages of a common historical legacy, common language and structures make transferability of best practices more likely in the specific urban context.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Ethical Approval Letter

<p>Dave Russell BA MSc Dean Direct line: +44 (0)23 9284 6012</p>	 <p>Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences</p>
<p>Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences University of Portsmouth Park Building King Henry I Street Portsmouth PO1 2DZ United Kingdom T: +44 (0)23 9284 8484 F: +44 (0)23 9284 6254</p>	
<p>Mrs Stella Adagiri PG Research Centre FHSS University of Portsmouth Park Building Portsmouth PO1 2DZ Hampshire</p>	
<p>REC reference number: 08/09:20 Please quote this number on all correspondence</p>	
<p>7th September 2009.</p> <p>Dear Stella,</p> <p>Full Title of Study: A Comparative Study of Teachers Continuing Professional Development in Nigeria and England .Case Study of Selected Primary Schools in Abuja and Portsmouth.</p> <p>Documents reviewed: Ethics Application Form Invitation letter, information and consent form v1 Invitation letter, information and consent form v1</p> <p>On checking records, I discovered that you had not been issued with a final letter confirming ethical approval for your study; I am very sorry for this oversight. Just to confirm the process of your review: When you made the initial application I noted a few anomalies regarding your letter of invitation, information sheet and consent form. You kindly addressed these by providing revised versions. I confirm that you:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Provided a detailed information sheet• removed the description 'appalling'• adjusted the letter to meet the needs of both groups of potential participants <p>These revisions allowed the Committee to provide a favourable ethical opinion. In addition, some members noticed minor issues which you might wish to address:</p>	
 <p>INVESTOR IN PEOPLE</p> <p>www.port.ac.uk</p>	

Letter of Introduction

Para 4: 'set up' rather than 'set'; Para 5: 'requesting' rather than 'requesting for'

Questionnaire

There seem to be a number of squares 'floating about' in the questionnaire.

The categories overlap in question 8 – which box should a person having 5 years experience tick?

What about a 'Not sure' option in G11?

Will everybody know what is meant by CPD? (Q13)

I can now confirm the Committee's favourable opinion and wish you every success in your continuing research

Kind regards,

David Carpenter

Chair FHSS REC

Committee members participating in the review:

Mr David Carpenter, FREC Chair

Mr Richard Hitchcock SLAS Representative

Mr Chris Lewis – ICJS / Statistician

CC: Dr Sylvia Horton, SSHLS
Dr David Holloway, SECS

APPENDIX 2: Letter of Introduction



School of Education and Continuing Studies

St Georges building

141 High Street, Old Portsmouth,

January 14, 2010.

The Head of School,

.....

.....

Dear Sir / Ma,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

I am a researcher with the University of Portsmouth, carrying out a study on teacher continuing professional development in primary schools in Abuja, Nigeria and Portsmouth, UK. I have already carried out the first part of my study in Portsmouth, England and i intend to do the same in Abuja being my case study in Nigeria. Having gone through different school types in Abuja, my aim is to get a variety of schools within the city to participate in the research. Please find attached a copy of a reference letter from my supervisor and brief information about the research.

To carry out my study, I would like to conduct a brief interview with the Head or any member of the school management who is responsible for teachers' development. I will also like to distribute questionnaires for your teachers to fill. I would appreciate if you kindly consider my request as I am working with a time frame to collect my data before schools go on half term. I look forward to your positive response Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Stella Adagiri Email:

stella.adagiri@port.ac.uk

APPENDIX 3: Information about the Research

1.0 Invitation Paragraph

I would like to invite you to take part in a research which is a comparative study on the professional development of teachers in Abuja, Nigeria and Portsmouth, England. Please carefully take time to read the following information to enable you have a clear understanding of what the whole research entails. I am willing to clarify any information you are not sure so about.

1.1 Study Title: A Comparative Study of Teachers' Professional Development in Nigeria and England. A case Study of Primary Schools in Abuja and Portsmouth.

1.2 Purpose of Research. The aims of this research is :

- To identify and examine the practice and policies underpinning teacher continuing professional development (CPD), focusing on primary schools in Abuja, Nigeria and Portsmouth, England.
- To identify and compare the key issues and gaps in the continuing professional development of teachers at primary school level in both countries.
- To explore the scope for policy and knowledge transfer, good practice and networking in the teaching profession between the two countries, using Abuja and Portsmouth as case studies.

1.3 Why Have I Been Invited?

You have been invited to take part in this research either because of your involvement as a stakeholder, teacher, or head teacher in primary education.

1.4 Do I Have To Take Part?

Having gone through the aims and purpose for this study, it is up to you to decide if you wish to participate or not. You will however be required to sign a consent form to show that you have agreed to take part in the study. Note that you are free to withdraw if you so wish, without giving any excuse.

1.5 What will it require from me?

You will be required to either answer a questionnaire or take part in an interview or provide any data that will be relevant for the study. You will only be involved in the research during the period of data collection which will be at a specified and agreed date.

1.6 Any Expenses or Payment?

You will not be receiving any form of payment or reward for participating in this study as it is voluntary. You will neither be expected to take responsibility for any expenses incurred during the process of the study. A written letter will be sent to you acknowledging and appreciating you for participating in the study.

1.7 What are The Possible Benefits of Taking Part?

The only benefit is that by partaking in this study, you will have helped to contribute to a study that will improve the quality of teacher education in both countries thereby helping to achieve the national educational objectives.

1.8 What are the possible outcomes of this Study?

This research will create more awareness to teacher CPD and reveal any gaps in the provision in primary education in Abuja and Portsmouth. This will help in contributing to raising the standard and improving the quality of the teaching force in Nigeria which is presently one of the strategic national objectives. This research hopes to explore possible opportunities of collaboration and knowledge transfer in teacher professional development.

1.9 Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

You can be assured that every information you will provide will be handled with absolute confidentiality during and after that study. As much as possible, participants will not be identified in the study and all stages of the feedback will be anonymised. Also, interview tapes, recordings and every raw data recorded will be kept strictly confidential and destroyed after a period of two years.

2.0 Who will have Access to this Study?

A summary of the research findings will be used for a PhD thesis which will be open to the public domain and may also be prepared as a journal article in the future. However there will be no disclosure of the participants' identity whatsoever as the researcher is conversant of the ethical issues.

2.1 Who has reviewed this Study?

This study will be reviewed by the Faculty's research and Ethics committee of the University of Portsmouth in order to ensure that your safety, rights and dignity is protected.

Thank you for your time and willingness to participate!

APPENDIX 4: Consent Letter



School of Education and Continuing Studies

St Georges building

141 High Street, Old Portsmouth.

Dear Sir / Ma,

TOPIC: A Comparative Study of Teachers Continuing Professional Development in Nigeria and England .Case Study of Primary Schools in Abuja and Portsmouth.

Please tick box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated for the above study .I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have these answered satisfactorily. ☐
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my job or legal rights being affected. ☐
3. I understand that the relevant sections of the comments I have made and information I have provided during the study may be looked at by other individuals from the university or the research and ethics committee where it is relevant to my taking part in this research. I give permission to these individuals to have access to the information I have provided. ☐
4. I agree to audio recordings of the interview. ☐
5. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

-----	-----	-----
Name of Participant	Date	Signature
-----	-----	-----
Name of Researcher	Date	Signature

APPENDIX 5: Reference Letter



School of Education and Continuing Studies

St Georges building

141 High Street, Old Portsmouth.

4th June, 2010

Dear Sir/Madam

PhD Research Reference Letter for Stella Adagiri

I am writing to introduce **Stella Adagiri**, who is currently a 3rd year **PhD student** in the School of Education and Continuing Studies, University of Portsmouth.

I have known Stella for over three years and have been her supervisor since 2006 when she enrolled on a Master's programme in Education and Training Management. She completed that successfully and went on to register for her PhD.

She is currently carrying out research on **Teachers Continuous Professional Development** in both independent and state maintained schools in Portsmouth. Her empirical research involves a survey of teachers in selected schools and interviews with the head teachers. She has studied the league tables and OFSTED reports of all schools in Portsmouth, and has selected your school to be included in the survey.

As a teacher, myself, I understand how busy you are but hope you will be interested and willing to participate in this research. Stella is an experienced educational administrator from Nigeria and her research is being supported by the Teachers Registration Council in Abuja, the Federal capital.

Her **aim is to study the practice of CPD in the UK and contribute to the research on CPD in the UK and creating a new body of knowledge in Nigeria**. Her study will facilitate a transfer of learning and good practice and contribute to the development of education policy and practice in Africa.

Stella would very much appreciate your cooperation and will be happy to provide you with more information about her research. She is a totally trustworthy and reliable woman. Should you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me.

Kind regards

Dr Sylvia Horton

Email: sylvia.horton@port.ac.uk

APPENDIX 6: Teachers' Questionnaire



Topic: Continuing Professional Development (CPD) In Primary Schools

Dear Participant, I am a PhD student at the University of Portsmouth carrying out research on teachers' CPD in both private and state schools in Portsmouth and Abuja. I would really appreciate your cooperation by completing this questionnaire. It should take you about 15 to 20 minutes to complete. Be assured that you will remain anonymous and your response will be treated with absolute confidentiality. Please be assured that no school or individual will be identified in any report of published findings.

A. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Sex : M ☐ F ☐
2. Age : a) 21-30 ☐ b) 31-40 ☐ c) 41-50 ☐ d) 51 and above ☐
3. Do you have a teaching qualification? Yes ☐ No ☐
4. If Yes to Q 3, Please indicate which type you have?
a) PGDE/PGCE ☐ b) B.Ed. ☐ c) BA(Education) ☐ d) NCE/ Cert.Ed. ☐
Please state any others
5. If No to Q3 are you currently enrolled on a teacher training program?
Yes ☐ No ☐
6. What influenced your decision to become a teacher?
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
7. How long have you been teaching?
a) 1-3 years ☐
b) 4-6 years ☐
c) 7-18 years ☐
d) 19-30 years ☐
e) 31-40 years ☐

8. What type of school do you teach in at the moment?

a) State ☐

b) Private ☐

B. CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

9. How long have you been teaching in your current school?

10. Please indicate your views on the following statements using the scale below.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
I have a clear understanding of what CPD means					
I am enthusiastic about my professional development					
I am aware of my professional development needs.					
I am well informed about available CPD programs I can engage in.					
I am involved in influencing the choice of the CPD activity I require.					
My school is supportive towards my professional development.					
I receive support from the local education authority towards my professional development.					

11. Using the scale below, please indicate how often you participate in any of the following CPD activities?

	Every term	Every session	Occasionally	Never
In house training / workshops				
External training /workshops				
Educational conferences				
Group activities with colleagues within the school.				
Activities with colleagues in other schools.				
Mentoring by experienced teachers within the school.				
Accredited higher education courses				
Research projects				

C. EFFECTIVENESS OF CPD PROGRAMMES

12. What do you consider to be an effective CPD programme?

.....

.....

.....

.....

13. Using the scale below indicate your views on the effectiveness of the following types of CPD programs?

	Very effective	Quite effective	Somewhat effective	Not effective	Not applicable
In house training workshops					
External workshops					
Educational conferences					
Group activities with colleagues within the school					
Activities with colleagues in other schools					
Mentoring by experienced teachers within the school					
Accredited higher education courses					
Research project					

14. Please use the scale to express your view on the following statements. Participating in effective CPD programs will improve.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't Know
My professional status as a teacher					
My teaching skills					
My subject knowledge					
My attitude towards teaching					
The performance of my pupils / students					
The school's reputation					

D. EVALUATION OF CPD PROGRAMMES

15. What are your views about the evaluation of the CPD activities you have participated in? Please rate the following statements

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
a) All CPD activities require evaluation to determine the effectiveness					
b) I always get evaluated after engaging in CPD activities.					
c) Different CPD' activities require different evaluation methods					
d) I always get feedback after evaluation					

16. After participating in CPD activities, which of the following have you been evaluated with? Please tick as applicable

	Yes	No	Don't know
Questionnaires about the CPD activity			
Reflective learning logs			
Impact on pupils performance or attitude			
Collection of documents, reports or evidence			
Classroom observation			

17. What motivates you to undertake CPD activities?

.....

18. What limits your participation in CPD activities?

.....

19. What areas do you require further training and development?

.....

Thank you for your time!

APPENDIX 7: Interview Schedule

Questions for Head teachers interview on Teachers Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

- 1 Can you please tell me briefly about your role and how long you have occupied your current position?
2. Did you undergo any special training or engage in professional development regarding your role or position?
3. Do all your teachers have teaching qualification? What proportion is not qualified?
4. Does your school have a CPD policy or structure for teacher's professional development and are teachers aware of the policy?
5. How do you plan and organise teacher CPD keep them updated with the current development in the teaching profession and to improve their quality?
6. Who is responsible for the teachers' professional development? What sort of CPD activities do your teachers engage in and how often do they engage in these activities?
7. Are there any recent innovations in teaching that your school have been involved in Please, mention briefly?
8. Is there any support or funding by the school / government towards their Professional Development?
9. Do you think teachers' CPD has any impact upon the teacher quality, students' performance or school reputation?
10. How do you evaluate the effectiveness of CPD programs teachers engage in and which activities would you consider most effective?
11. What constraints or limitations do you encounter as a head teacher in engaging teachers in CPD activities?
12. How do you motivate your teachers towards their professional development?
13. Do have any suggestions that towards improving teacher professional development and quality?
- 14 .Please may I have a copy of any of the following documents?

{School Development Plan, CPD policy, Organisational Structure, Staff evaluation form and CPD profile}.

APPENDIX 8: Coding Template

	DESCRIPTION OF VARIABLE	PASW(SPSS)VARIABLE NAME	CODING INSTRUCTIONS
	Identification number	ID	Subject identification number
1	Sex	SEX	MALE-1 FEMALE-2
2	AGE	AGE	a)-1 b)-2 c)-3 d)-4 e)-5
3	Teaching Qualification	TQ	Yes -1 no -2
4	Type of TQ	TTQ	a)-1 b)-2 c)-3 d)-4
5	Currently enrolled	CE	Yes -1 no -2
6	Type of TT enrolled	TTPE	
7	Why teach	WT	Interest in children-1 Inspired-2, Desire to make an impact-3 Job availability-4 Family convenience -5 others -6
8	Years of teaching experience	YTEX	a)-1 b)-2 c)-3 d)-4 e)-5
9	School type	ST	a)-1 b)-2
10	Years of service in school	YRSERV	1-5yrs -1 ;6-10yrs -2 11-15yrs-3; 16-20yrs-4; 21-25yrs-5; 26 & above-6
11	CPD		
I	I understand what CPD means	CPD KNOW	SA-1 AG-2 DG-3 SD-4 DK-5
II	I am aware of my PD needs	CPDAWR	
III	I am well informed about CPD programs	CPDINFO	
IV	My school decides what CPD I do	CPDSCHDEC	
V	I am responsible for my CPD	CPDMYRES	
VI	My school supports my CPD	CPDSCHSUP	
VII	The Govt supports my CPD	CPDGVTSUP	
12	FREQUENCY		Every Term -1 Every session -2 Occasionally- 3 Never-4
I	In-house workshops	INWKSHIP	
II	External workshops	EXTWKSHIP	
III	Educational Conferences	EDUCONF	
IV	Collaborative activities within school	INGRPACT	
V	Collaborative activities with other schools	EXGRPACT	
VI	Mentoring	MENT	
VII	Higher education courses	HIEDPRO	
VIII	Research projects	RESPRO	

13	EFFECTIVENESS OF CPD		Very effective -1 Quite Effective- 2 Somewhat Effective -3 Not Effective- 4 Not applicable-5
I	In-house workshops	EFINWKSH	
II	External workshops	EFEXWKSH	
III	Educational Conferences	EFCONF	
IV	Collaborative activities within school	EFINCOLL	
V	Collaboration with other schools	EFEXCOLL	
VI	Mentoring	EFMENT	
VII	Higher education courses	EFHEDPRO	
VIII	Research Projects	EFRESCH	
14	IMPACT OF EFFECTIVE CPD		Strongly agree -1 Agree-2 Disagree -3 Strongly Disagree -4 Not applicable -5
I	Professional status	IMPRO	
II	Teaching skills	IMPTCH	
III	Subject Knowledge	IMPKNOW	
IV	Attitude	IMPATT	
V	Students	IMPSTU	
VI	School	IMPSCH	
15	EVALUATION		SA -1 AG -2 DG -3 SD -4 NA -5
I	All CPD require evaluation	EVACPD	
II	I receive evaluation always	EVATCH	
III	Different CPD require different evaluation	EVADIFF	
IV	I always get feed back	FDBAKYES	
16	TYPES OF EVALUATION		Yes - 1 No – 2 Don't know -3
I	Questionnaire	EVQUEST	
II	Reflective logs	EVREFLOG	
III	Pupils performance	EVSTUPEF	
IV	Documents and reports	EVDODREP	
V	Classroom observation	EVCLASOBS	
17	MOTIVATION	MOTIV	
18	LIMITATION	LIMITCPD	
19	PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS	DENEEDS	

APPENDIX 9: List of Documents

NIGERIA

- i) The National Policy on Education. Lagos: Federal Ministry of Education. (FME) (1998).
- ii) The State of Education in FCT (2003) A report prepared by the Education Resource centre, Ministry of Federal Capital Territory.
- iii) Education Sector Status Report. Abuja, Nigeria: FME. (2003a).
- iv) Teachers Registration Council Nigeria Annual Report 2007 and 2009 Abuja.
- v) Introducing Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria. Abuja (2008). Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria. TRCN.
- vi) Statistical Digest on Teachers in Nigeria 2007/2008. Abuja produced by Teachers Registration Council Nigeria (TRCN)
- vii) Information Handbook on Nursery and Primary and Secondary schools in the Federal Capital Territory (2009) 6th edition by Education Resource Centre Abuja.
- viii) List of private schools in Abuja (2010) (4th edition) produced by Schools Resource Centre.
- ix) Roadmap for the Nigerian Education Sector (2010). Federal Ministry of Education (FME).
- x) One Year Strategic Plan for the Development of the Education Sector (2011). Abuja: Federal Ministry of Education (FME).

ENGLAND

- i) Excellence in Schools: White Paper (1997). Department for Education and Employment (DfEE).
- ii) Schools Achieving Success: White Paper (2001). Department for Education and Employment (DfEE)
- iii) Learning and Teaching: A strategy for Professional Development. Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) (2001a).
- iv) Teachers: meeting the challenge of change Department for Education and Employment (DfEE). (2002)
- v) Schools Achieving Success. Department for Education and Science (DfES). (2001).
- vi) Registered Teachers' Profile in Portsmouth (2005 - 2011). England: Graduate Teaching Council (GTCE)
- vii) Continuing Professional Development: A strategy for teachers. London: (2006). Training and Development Agency for schools (TDA).

- viii) Continuing Professional Development Guidance. London: (2008). Training and Development Agency (TDA).
- ix) Code of Conduct and Practice for Registered Teachers. England (2009). General Teaching Council for England (GTCE)
- x) The Importance of Teaching: The Schools White Paper 2010 Department for Education (DfE).

APPENDIX 10: Distribution of Schools in Abuja

A) Distribution of Primary schools in the Federal capital territory according to area councils 2008/2009 (ERC 2009)

S/no	Area council	Category	Public school	Private school	Total
1	Abaji	Suburban	54	12	66
2	Bwari	Suburban	67	134	201
3	Gwagwalada	Suburban	55	32	87
4	Kuje	Suburban	91	21	112
5	Kwali	Suburban	76	24	100
6.	Abuja Municipal	Urban/Suburban	120	219	339

B) Distribution of Schools within Urban district of Abuja Municipal (ERC2009)

S/no	Area	Public	Private	Total
1	Urban area	9 (10%)	76 (90%)	85 (25%)
2	Suburban area	111(43.5%)	143(56.5%)	253 (75%)
Total		120	219	339

APPENDIX 11: Distribution of Schools in Portsmouth

CIP area	Infant	Primary	Secondary	Total Schools
North West	1	5	1	7
North East	2	5	1	8
Central north island	1	17	3	21
South West	2	11	3	16
South East	10	9	2	21
Total	16	47	10	63

APPENDIX 12: Categorisation of Teachers in Primary Schools in Abuja by Qualifications and Gender (TRCN 2009).

QUALIFICATION	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE
NCE	2860	3780	6640	85%
B.ED	310	750	1060	14%
M.ED	22	32	54	1%
TOTAL	3202 (41%)	4563 (59%)	7765	

APPENDIX 13: Number of Qualified Teachers in Portsmouth according to Age Range and Gender (GTC 2011)

AGE RANGE	GENDER		
	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
20-29	264	61	325 (20%)
30-39	366	86	452 (27%)
40-49	301	93	394 (24%)
50-59	293	80	373 (23%)
60 and over	68	25	93 (6%)
TOTAL	1292 (79%)	345 (21%)	1637

APPENDIX 14: Categories of teacher Qualifications in Portsmouth according to GTC (2011)

TEACHING QUALIFICATION	CERTIFICATE IN EDUCATION	BA.ED	B.ED	PGCE	GTP	OTT	TOTAL
NUMBER OF TEACHERS	6 (0.5%)	248 (19%)	176 (14%)	729 (57%)	112 (9%)	6 (0.5%)	1277

APPENDIX 15: Huberman's Model of Teacher's Professional Life Phase (Adapted in the questionnaire)

Professional Phase	Characteristics
0 - 3 years Career entry	Novice teacher Learning to adapt
4 - 6 years Stabilisation stage	Commitment through consolidation Integration into peer groups
7-18 years Secure stage	Experienced Relatively secure
19 – 30 years Professional plateau	Less enthusiasm Stagnation Rigidity
31 and above Serenity stage	Disengagement Withdrawal from professional commitments

APPENDIX 16: Profile of Schools used for the survey in Abuja.

ID	School Type	Year Established	Number of Pupils	Number of Teachers	Participants	Website	Internet	Library	Sports/ Recreation
AP1	PRIVATE	1997	646	25	13	NO	NO	YES	YES
AP2	PRIVATE	1998	483	23	14	NO	NO	YES	YES
AP3	PRIVATE	1994	676	31	16	YES	YES	YES	YES
AP4	PRIVATE	1995	503	19	16	NO	NO	YES	YES
AP5	PRIVATE	2002	146	7	4	NO	NO	NO	NO
AP6	PRIVATE	1995	487	20	10	NO	YES	YES	YES
AP7	PRIVATE	1998	386	16	14	YES	NO	NO	YES
AP8	PRIVATE	2002	263	12	8	NO	YES	YES	NO
AP9	PRIVATE	1989	342	15	10	NO	NO	YES	YES
AP10	PRIVATE	2002	404	25	13	NO	NO	NO	YES
AP11	PRIVATE	1996	512	27	14	NO	YES	YES	NO
AP12	PRIVATE	1998	260	10	7	NO	NO	NO	YES
AP13	PRIVATE	1991	238	12	6	NO	NO	YES	YES
AP14	PRIVATE	2000	170	8	5	NO	NO	NO	YES
AP15	PRIVATE	2001	416	19	8	NO	NO	YES	YES
AS1	STATE	1997	617	14	13	NO	NO	NO	YES
AS2	STATE	2000	589	15	8	NO	NO	NO	YES
AS3	STATE	1991	634	16	15	NO	NO	NO	NO
AS4	STATE	1988	710	22	11	NO	NO	NO	YES
	TOTAL		8482	325	205				

Appendix 17: Profile of schools used for the survey in Portsmouth

ID	School Type	Year Established	Number of Pupils	Number of Teachers	Participants	Website	Internet	Library	Sports /Recreation
PI1	IND	1872	185	11	9	YES	YES	YES	YES
PI2	IND	1911	204	13	3	YES	YES	YES	YES
PS1	STATE	1970	315	12	6	YES	YES	YES	YES
PS2	STATE	1953	256	11	8	YES	YES	YES	YES
PS3	STATE	1972	230	13	4	YES	YES	YES	YES
PS4	STATE	1965	420	17	6	YES	YES	YES	YES
PS5	STATE	1980	251	13	5	YES	YES	YES	YES
PS6	STATE	1961	387	14	7	YES	YES	YES	YES
	TOTAL		2248	104	48				

Appendix 18: Reasons Why Participants Chose the Teaching Profession

Reasons why participants chose the teaching profession	Portsmouth		Abuja	
	Frequency	Per cent (%)	Frequency	per cent (%)
Love for Children	18	37.5	39	19.0
Inspired by someone	9	18.8	19	9.3
Desire to make an impact	7	14.6	81	39.5
Interest in teaching	6	12.5	21	10.2
Family convenience	4	8.3	10	4.9
Availability of teaching job	2	4.2	14	6.8
As a stepping stone	0	0	17	8.3
Others	2	4.2	4	2
Total	48	100.0	205	100.0

Appendix 19 : UPR16 FORM

FORM UPR16

Research Ethics Review Checklist

Please complete and return the form to Research Section, Quality Management Division,
Academic Registry, University House, with your thesis, prior to examination

Postgraduate Research Student (PGRS) Information		Student ID:	343200
Candidate Name:	Stella. O. Adagiri		
Department:	School of Education and Continuing Studies	First Supervisor:	David Holloway
Start Date: (or progression date for Prof Doc students)	02/10/2007		

Study Mode and Route:	Part-time	<input type="checkbox"/>	MPhil	<input type="checkbox"/>	Integrated Doctorate	<input type="checkbox"/>
					(New Route)	
	Full-time	X	MD	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>
			PhD	X	Prof Doc (PD)	

Title of Thesis:	Comparative Study of Teachers Continuing Professional Development (CPD) In Nigeria and England. A study of Primary Schools in Abuja and Portsmouth.
Thesis Word Count: (excluding ancillary data)	70,879

If you are unsure about any of the following, please contact the local representative on your Faculty Ethics Committee for advice. Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University's Ethics Policy and any relevant University, academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study

Although the Ethics Committee may have given your study a favourable opinion, the final responsibility for the ethical conduct of this work lies with the researcher(s)

UKRIO Finished Research Checklist:	
(If you would like to know more about the checklist, please see your Faculty or Departmental Ethics Committee rep or see the online version of the full checklist at: http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/)	
Candidate Statement:	
I have considered the ethical dimensions of the above named research project, and have successfully obtained the necessary ethical approval(s)	
Ethical review number(s) from Faculty Ethics Committee (or from NRES/SCREC):	
Signed: S.O. Adagiri <i>(Student)</i>	Date: 15/01/2014
If you have <i>not</i> submitted your work for ethical review, and/or you have answered 'No' to one or more of questions a) to e), please explain why this is so:	
Signed: <i>(Student)</i>	Date:
a) Have all of your research and findings been reported accurately, honestly and within a reasonable time frame?	<u>YES</u>
b) Have all contributions to knowledge been acknowledged?	YES
c) Have you complied with all agreements relating to intellectual property, publication and authorship?	YES
d) Has your research data been retained in a secure and accessible form and will it remain so for the required duration?	YES
e) Does your research comply with all legal, ethical, and contractual requirements?	YES

